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ABSTRACT

To test the effectiveness of a design for stimulating curriculum change, seven home economics teachers were trained to serve as leaders of seven 2-hour inservice workshops which were designed to motivate the experimental group of 79 secondary home economics teachers to incorporate wage-earning emphases in their programs. All the participants, including a control group of 79 teachers, were interviewed in an attempt to find demographic, dual role, and social-psychological variables that differentiated teachers who included wage-earning emphases from those who did not. Results suggested a positive relationship between wage-earning emphases and being married, maintaining socioeconomic status, having taught longer, high professional involvement, high self-rating of teaching effectiveness, and others. In addition to the interviews, each workshop was evaluated, and pre- and posttests were administered at the conclusion of the workshops. As a result of this pilot study, a followup study is in process. Several study instruments are appended. (SB)

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AN INVESTIGATION OF
THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A DESIGN
TO INITIATE CURRICULUM CHANGE
IN HOME ECONOMICS

PILOT STUDY: PHASE I

by
Mary B. Kievit

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CHAPTER I

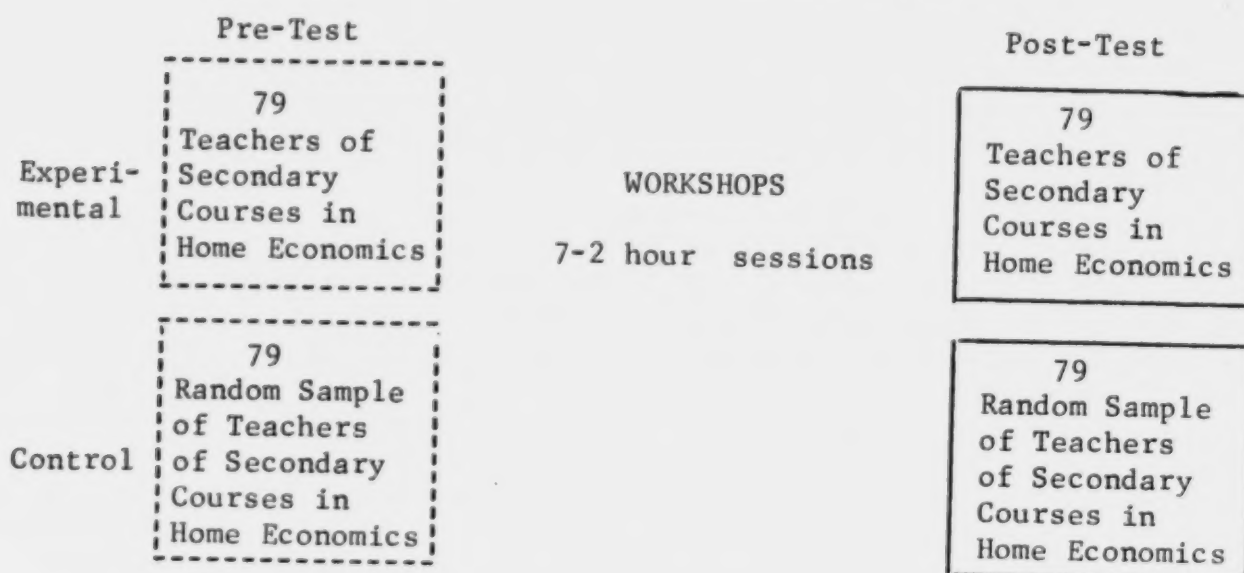
ACTION RESEARCH RELATED TO CURRICULUM CHANGE SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Objectives and Design

The objectives of the pilot study were:

1. to test procedures for selecting and training in-service workshop leaders; to develop and test in-service workshop content and materials; to identify problems in arranging for and implementing in-service workshops throughout the state.
2. to test and refine instruments used to evaluate the outcomes of the workshop in relationship to selected teacher characteristics.

The project design is described in the diagram:



The design is quasi-experimental. Teachers in the experimental group were selected from those who did not have occupation courses and who were within geographical proximity to workshop locations. Where the number of teachers exceeded 18 (the maximum number to be invited), a random sampling technique was employed to decide which 18 would be invited.

A control group was selected by a random sampling technique from a list of names of all secondary teachers of home economics in the state after the names of workshop participants were excluded. The control group was used primarily to be able to answer two questions:

1. in what characteristics and to what extent do teachers in the experimental group differ from being representative of secondary home economics teachers throughout the state, thus limiting the extent to which findings can be generalized?

2. to what extent can changes in curriculum be attributed to the stimulus, i.e., in-service workshops, rather than to other factors such as reading about and implementing curriculum ideas from professional literature, contact with teachers who have modified courses in other schools, and administrative pressure?

The control group would be affected by such factors while not experiencing the in-service workshops. Teachers in the experimental group would be subject to both types of influences.

The experimental and control groups are demarcated in the diagram under pre-test with broken lines to indicate a departure from the usual pre-test and post-test design. The classical design procedure is to test, introduce stimulus, then re-test. In this study pre-test data were obtained at the same time as post-test data. The rationale was as follows: Data of strategic concern pertained to incorporating wage-earning emphases in home economics courses and/or programs. As indicated, teachers in the experimental group were selected from those known not to have occupational courses (a type of pre-test from external sources of data). Further, respondents were asked the dates during which curriculum changes reported were planned and implemented. From this datum it was possible to determine if change was planned and/or implemented before, during or after the in-service workshops. Similar data from control group respondents made it possible to assess the amount of change in curriculum which might have been expected to occur without in-service workshops.

Data were obtained from 79 teachers by interview. This constitutes 82 percent of the sample drawn. Loss of the 18 percent resulted from: five indicating they were too new in their positions and preferred not to participate, four who were disqualified because of being workshop participants or teachers at the junior level, one was on leave, one was an exchange teacher from England, one refused, and four were eliminated when the decision was made to reduce the size of the control group to approximate the number of workshop participants. In each case, one teacher had already been interviewed in each of the schools in which these four teachers were employed. Comparable data were obtained from 79 workshop participants in session 5 and session 7. Data were coded and machine tabulated.

Stimulus for Change

Events and outcomes relative to fulfilling the first objective were:

1. Seven leaders were selected and prepared between July 1, 1967 and January 1, 1968 to lead in-service education workshops.
2. Six of these leaders were involved in the selection and preparation of materials and methods to be used in the workshops during the month of August, 1967.

3. Workshops met for seven sessions each, in each of the following counties: Burlington, Essex, Gloucester, Monmouth, Passaic, Union, and Somerset. One hundred twenty-six teachers were invited to attend these workshops. Eighty-eight accepted the invitation. Seventy-seven (87.5 percent) attended 6 or more sessions and received certificates. Workshops were held on alternate weeks from 3:30-5:30 or 3:45-5:45 over a fourteen-week period from January through April, 1968.
4. Workshop sessions were systematically evaluated in considerable detail. The results of the evaluation showed a consistent and large majority of participants rating the various facets of each session good to excellent. The results of global ratings were as follows:

RATING

<u>Session</u>	<u>Excellent</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Total N</u>
1	28	45	3		76
2	44	35	2	1	82
3	35	43	2	0	80
4	23	47	3	0	73
5	24	41	5	0	70
6	30	39	5	0	74
<u>7</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>38</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>76</u>
Total	219	288	22	2	531

A forceful single indication of the success of the workshops is the fact that of seventy-five teachers responding to the question, "Should this workshop be offered to other teachers in the state?" 68 (i.e., 90.6 percent) said "Yes." Six were undecided and one did not respond.

Thorough analysis of evaluation data led to the unequivocal conclusion that an unusually high proportion of teachers attending the workshops, viewed these sessions as rewarding positive experiences.

Wage-Earning Emphases

In order to answer basic questions raised on the second objective of the pilot, experimental and control group respondents were categorized into four sub-populations: experimental group, (1) wage-earning emphases, (2) no wage-earning emphases; control group, (1) wage-earning emphases, (2) no wage-earning emphases. The criterion for categorizing a respondent as wage earning was that the respondent indicated that she had incorporated wage-earning emphases in some way in her courses or that some other home economics teacher in the school was teaching wage-earning emphases, or that plans were in process to incorporate wage-earning emphases. Although the same criterion was used,

significant differences did exist between the experimental and control group wage-earning categories. This resulted from the fact that the experimental group participants had been selected on the basis that none was teaching an occupational course, whereas within the control group, a total of fifteen were teaching such courses. Consequently, throughout the analysis of data and reporting of findings, more credence is given to evidence of relationships between wage-earning emphases and specific variables when this occurred for the control group. Further, throughout the report, where relevant, data from these fifteen, labeled as innovators, have been analyzed separately to provide some indication of the relationship between selected variables and what can more accurately be labeled as innovation. It should be evident that in terms of outcomes of the stimulus for change, i.e., in-service workshops, the definition of wage-earning lacks rigor. Thus, the findings reported must be viewed at this time as only suggestive and tentative, quite consistent with findings of a pilot project.

Analysis of data and reporting of findings were in terms of the independent variable of participation category, i.e., leaders, non-participants (teachers invited to workshops who did not attend), experimental group, and control group, and wage-earning categories for the experimental and control groups.

The numerical distributions of respondents among the various categories were:

Leaders	7
Non-Participants	28
Experimental Group	79
Control Group	<u>79</u>
Total	193

Experimental Group	
Wage Earning	37
No Wage Earning	41
No Response	<u>1</u>
Total	79

Control Group	
Wage Earning	44
No Wage Earning	34
No Response	<u>1</u>
Total	79

Other areas in which findings were reported include: courses taught by respondents, type of wage-earning emphases, courses taught by others, type of wage-earning emphases, plans for courses, descriptions of initiation of wage-earning emphases, content, methods used, problems encountered, and years in which courses were planned and initiated.

Demographic Characteristics and Wage-Earning Emphases

Two questions were of primary concern in obtaining demographic data: first, were the characteristics of the experimental group significantly different from the control group? Second, were the demographic characteristics of teachers reporting some wage-earning emphases significantly different from those who did not?

With reference to the similarity and dissimilarity of the control group and the experimental group, it was found that:

A larger proportion of the experimental group were older married or widowed teachers who earned the undergraduate degree prior to 1950. Approximately 15 percent had a Master's degree. The control had slightly more than twice the number of single respondents as compared to the experimental group; as a whole the group had a median age five years younger than the experimental group. A larger proportion had earned the undergraduate degree between 1961-67 and 25 percent had Master's degrees.

The difference in age composition is reflected in the proportions having taught less than or more than 10 years. Approximately 40 percent in both groups have taught more than 10 years. However, half of the control group has taught 1 to 5 years as contrast to one-third of the experimental group. In turn, a larger proportion (26.5 percent) of the experimental group have been in the present position over 10 years as contrast to 19.5 percent of the control group. The largest proportions (30.4 and 37.7 respectively) for both groups have been in the present position 1 to 2 years.

A larger proportion (45 percent) of the experimental group reported having three or more children than in the control group (35 percent). Median number of children for all respondents was two.

Socioeconomic origins of the two groups were found to be essentially the same. Present socioeconomic status based on husbands' occupations of married respondents were very similar also. The slight variation which did occur was in the direction of control group respondents being of higher socioeconomic status. A sizeable proportion of both groups were upwardly mobile. Approximately the same proportion of married respondents in both groups reported that the spouses educational achievement was equal to hers (44 percent and 47 percent) or less than hers (36 percent and 39 percent).

Data on employment patterns specifically with reference to continuous as contrast to interrupted employment, indicated that there were only small variations between the two groups. Less than half of married respondents in both groups (48 percent and 40 percent) reported having worked continuously. Close to 70 percent of these having interrupted employment reported one interruption of an average of 7 years and a median of 5 years. A larger proportion of respondents in the experimental group (33 percent) reported two interruptions than in the control group (17 percent). This may be a function of the variance in age composition of the two groups. About half

of each group reported having worked in business or community agencies after graduation, most frequently for less than three years. An overwhelming majority of both groups expressed a preference for teaching.

With reference to relationships between demographic characteristics and incorporating wage-earning emphases, no statistically significant differences, i.e., at the .05 level of confidence were found. Direction of variations suggested that positive relationships may exist between incorporating wage-earning emphases and the following characteristics of the teacher: being married, maintaining socioeconomic status (i.e., of origin) or being upwardly mobile, having taught longer, and not having worked in business.

Dual Roles and Wage-Earning Emphases

Among the selected factors thought to have a potential relationship to the receptivity to change curriculum was one linked uniquely to the role of being an employed homemaker; namely, the extent of professional involvement in relation to management of homemaking responsibilities.

Professional involvement was measured by combining scores derived for a professional participation scale and a professional reading scale. Data were analyzed in terms of medians and further differentiation into categories of high, middle, and low.

It was found that generally the leaders are characterized by high professional involvement as evident in professional memberships and reading. With reference to professional memberships, only slight variations appeared between the experimental and control groups; the non-participants reported the lowest degree of participation. The experimental group reported more professional reading than did the non-participants or control group. This difference remained for professional involvement which was a summation of membership participation and reading.

Analysis of participation data in relation to wage-earning emphases consistently supported a slight but positive relationship between more professional participation and incorporating wage-earning emphases.

Slightly over half of the respondents reported membership at either county, state or national level of home economics associations. Slightly less than half reported that they usually attend the state association meetings.

An examination of journals listed and reported to be most frequently read, found What's New in Home Economics and Practical Forecast ranking first and second. The Journal of Home Economics ranked third. The reported reading of professional journals raises a serious question as to the effectiveness of these as a means for continuing professional education. For no journal did the proportion of respondents reporting that they "usually" read it, exceed 56.4 percent.

Respondents were asked about factors most important in helping her achieve her homemaking goals, services purchased, assistance with routine domestic responsibilities received from others, and attitudes of husband and children.

The range of variation in responses to these questions was quite narrow. The picture emerges of a primarily homogeneous group with reference to managing domestic responsibilities. In turn, no significant differences occurred between wage-earning categories. In brief, respondents cited management skills, cooperation of family, and motivation as major factors in helping her to achieve her goals in homemaking. Data pertaining to services purchased and help with routine tasks from others support the view of heavy reliance upon herself. From the data available, cooperation of family appears to mean members having favorable attitudes toward her teaching rather than routine assistance with many domestic responsibilities. These findings suggest that professional home economists like other employed women continue to assume major responsibility for homemaking.

Social-Psychological Variables and Wage-Earning Emphases

Other selected variables included self-perception as an opinion leader, self assessment of teaching effectiveness, work orientation, job satisfaction, type of belief system and risk-taking propensities.

Measurements of each variable were as follows:

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Measure</u>
Self-perception as an opinion leader	Six item scale modified version of Roger's scale
Self-assessment of teaching effectiveness	A ten item rating scale
Work orientation	Direct questions
Job satisfaction I	Five item scale modified version of Morse's scale
Job satisfaction II	Three scales of 18 items each, measuring work, supervision, adult relationships; one 8 item scale measuring satisfaction with pay modified version of the Job Descriptive Index
Type of belief system (open-closed)	Short form (10 items) Rokeach Dogmatism Scale
Risk-Taking Propensities	8 forced choice items, "Job Preference Inventory" by L. Williams

Findings:

Self-perception as an opinion leader: All categories of respondents had mean scores exceeding the theoretical mean of 3. Leaders and control group respondents had higher mean scores than did the experimental group and non-participants.

Variations between wage-earning categories were small, but in the direction of a positive relationship between higher self-perception as an opinion leader and reporting wage-earning emphases for both the experimental and control group.

Self-evaluation of effectiveness as a teacher: Most teachers rate themselves high on teaching effectiveness with a median of 42 out of a possibility of 50. The experimental and control groups did not differ significantly. Data for the control group were suggestive of a positive relationship between high self-rating of teaching effectiveness and reporting wage-earning emphases.

Job satisfaction I: Responses to the five item job satisfaction scale showed all respondents to score well over (21.8) the theoretical mean of 12.5 on a 25 point scale. Thus indicating high job satisfaction. Evidence supports the hypothesis that a positive relationship exists between higher job satisfaction (relative to others within these samples) and reporting wage-earning emphases. Variations were found between the control and experimental groups in that the former consistently had a higher proportion reporting higher satisfaction.

Job satisfaction II: The Job Descriptive Index measured satisfaction in four areas of the job: work, supervision, adult relationships, and pay. On the first three areas, mean scores for all categories were 10 or more points above the theoretical scale mean, indicating high satisfaction. The control group consistently had slightly higher mean scores than did the experimental group.

Evidence supported a positive relationship between job satisfaction in all job dimensions except work and reporting wage-earning emphases.

Work orientation: Analysis of reasons for working found economic gain and personal satisfaction most frequently cited. The experimental and control groups differed slightly with a larger proportion of the former citing economic gain, whereas the larger proportion of the control group specified personal satisfaction.

Over eighty percent of all respondents indicated that they would continue working full or part time, even if all economic needs of the family were met. Thus for a large proportion work has an intrinsic value over and above the economic consideration.

Evidence suggests a positive relationship between citing personal satisfaction as the first reason for working and reporting wage-earning emphases.

Open-closed belief system: A short form of Rokeach's scale to measure dogmatism was used as an indicator of the type of belief systems of respondents. Analysis of mean scores found negligible variation between the experimental, control, and non-participant groups.

Variations in mean scores were slight for both experimental and control group wage-earning categories, but were consistently in the direction of higher dogmatism associated with reporting wage-earning emphases. Data for a small group of innovators showed a much larger proportion categorized as low on dogmatism. The explanation for this variance in direction may be linked with the fact that respondents in the experimental and control group wage-earning categories would more accurately be labeled as "early majority" or "majority" adopters rather than innovators. Further, since not all home economists view wage-earning emphases favorably, those who do may need a certain "closed-mindedness" to alternative view points to persist in the face of resistance and possibly unfavorable attitudes. The follow-up study will provide a more rigorous test of the relationship and more information relative to an adequate explanation.

Risk-taking propensities: Risk-taking propensities were measured by an eight-item forced-choice Guttman-type scale. Mean scores for the experimental and control groups were close to the theoretical mean of 4. Non-participants and leaders had higher risk-taking mean scores. Data pertaining to any relationship between risk-taking propensities and reporting wage-earning emphases were inconclusive.

Conclusions and Subsequent Directions

Teacher-led in-service workshops stressing change were successfully implemented.

Results of the research phase of the pilot study has demonstrated the adequacy of using measures of selected variables. Questions to elicit demographic data, management of domestic responsibilities, wage-earning emphases, and work orientation have with two minor exceptions proved adequate. Measures of professional membership, reading, and combined as professional involvement, have provided a basis for differentiating among respondents, as have measures of job satisfaction, dogmatism, risk-taking propensities, and self-perceptions as an opinion leader. The self-assessment of teaching effectiveness scales was inadequate in differentiating among respondents except within a narrow range.

Recognizing the lack of rigor in the definition of incorporating wage-earning emphases, findings were suggestive of positive relationships between wage-earning emphases and the following variables:

1. being married
2. maintaining socioeconomic status (i.e., of origin)
or being upwardly mobile

3. having taught longer
4. not having worked in business
5. high professional involvement
6. perceiving oneself as an opinion leader
7. high self rating of teaching effectiveness
8. high job satisfaction (except on work dimension)
9. citing personal satisfaction as first reason for working
10. higher degree of dogmatism

The results of the pilot study underscored the relative homogeneity of the respondents on a number of variables. Consequently, categorizing respondents into high middle, and low categories proved a more satisfactory approach to data analysis than did examination of mean scores or medians.

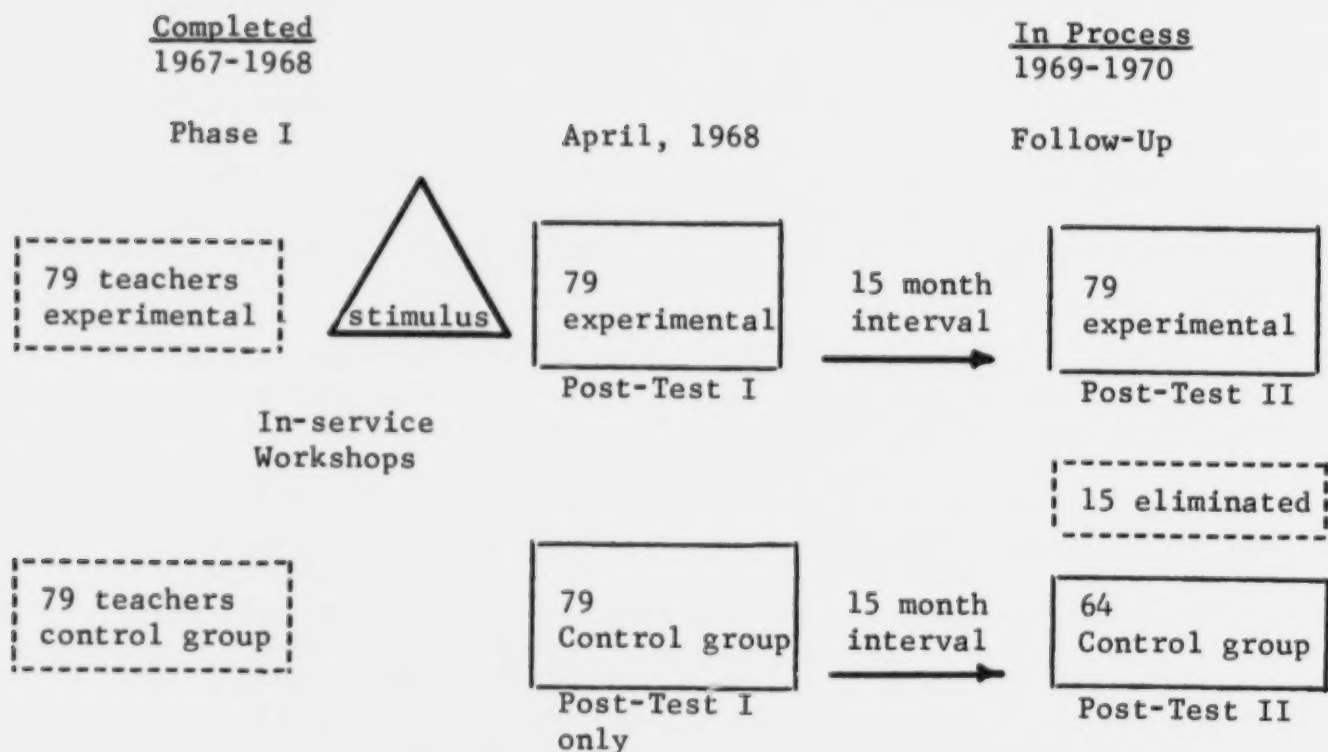
In sum, both the action and research phase of the pilot study was such, that a more rigorous effort to answer the questions raised seemed warranted.

Therefore a follow-up study has been funded and is in process.

The objectives of the follow-up are to ascertain -

1. the number of teacher participants in teacher led in-service workshops who after fifteen months have in fact initiated curriculum change; the extent and nature of change.
2. the extent to which the number of teachers modifying curriculum exceeds the frequency with which such change could have been expected to occur without the benefit of teacher-led in-service workshops.
3. whether participants who modify curriculum differ significantly on selected characteristics from those participants who do not modify curriculum.

The research design in relation to the pilot study is shown below.



The schematic above shows the follow-up research design in relation to the first phase of the project completed in 1967-68 and early '69. The follow-up in the total perspective constitutes a second post-test with approximately a 15-month time interval. The two populations from which follow-up data are to be obtained are: 1) the 79 teachers participating in the teacher-led in-service workshops, i.e., the total experimental group and 2) a control of 64 teachers from the original 79 who were selected by a random sampling technique and from whom post-test only data were obtained in 1968. A word of explanation pertaining to the reduction of the size of the control group is necessary. The control group of 79 was selected in such a manner (random sampling) as to be as representative of all high school home economics teachers in the state as feasible. Since wage-earning emphases have been incorporated in some home economics programs, as was expected, some teachers in the control group were teaching occupation courses. Teachers in the experimental group were invited to attend in-service workshops on one criterion, among others, that each was not teaching an occupation course.

The purpose in the follow-up is to obtain data from a control group which closely approximates the experimental group with the single exception that teachers in the control group have not participated in the stimulus for change, namely, teacher-led in-service education workshops. Thus, by eliminating those teachers in the control group who are teaching occupational courses, the remaining teachers constitute a control group representative of high school home economics teachers in the state who are not teaching occupation courses, the remaining teachers constitute a control group

representative of high school home economics teachers in the state who are not teaching occupation courses. This latter, in a sense, represents a refined control group and fills the need for a valid comparison group for the follow-up phase.

Data will be collected by interview. Information elicited will include whether curriculum has been modified and if so, how and to what extent. Once respondents are categorized in terms of having initiated change or not having initiated change, data will be examined to determine whether relationships exist between initiating change and the selected variables included in the pilot.

These variables have been extended in the follow-up phase to include the teacher's perception of the receptivity to change within the school system. In working with teachers, it is evident that teachers in some systems perceive support for change through the attitudes of chairmen and administrators. These perceptions, whether valid or erroneous constitute a positive or negative force in the individual's motivational field.

A second extension is the teacher's attitude towards vocational education generally. Receptivity to change may well be related to the favor or disfavor with which the innovation is viewed, and wage-earning emphases in home economics is an aspect of vocational education.

Thirdly, an effort will be made to assess the teacher's perception of the views of other home economists relative to their favoring or disfavoring the extension of home economics programs to include preparation for wage earning. This provides some indication of perceived norms of one reference group, a variable cited by Rogers as significant.

Fourth, some questions will seek to determine the participants' stage in the adoption process at the time she attended the workshop, and her evaluation of the merit of the workshops in retrospect.

Some open-ended questions will be added to gain information about possible workshop outcomes which were unanticipated.

In conclusion, the pilot study as a first phase was successfully completed. The second phase is in process and should provide a more rigorous basis for answering some, and refining, other significant questions relative to initiating curriculum change.

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCTION

Curriculum must change in relation to a changing society. With the Vocational Education Act of 1963, home economists have been given a charge to assume some responsibility to prepare students for gainful employment in addition to preparation for useful employment within the home. A few high school curricula in home economics have been modified and extended toward this end. Many others have not. During 1966-67 in New Jersey there were 33¹ pilot projects in home economics related occupations. At the same time there were 459 secondary schools² in the state. Home economics related occupations courses were available in approximately 8 percent of the schools. Forty-eight pilot projects were in operation in 1967-68, and 42 in 1968-69. In addition to occupational courses, wage-earning emphases can be incorporated into home economics programs in other meaningful ways. A definite need exists for faster dissemination of information concerning the need for curriculum change, alternative approaches, and means available for implementing different approaches.

Two specific needs which existed were:

1. To modify and extend present home economics curricula to include wage-earning emphases.
2. To increase the number of leaders within the state who can facilitate such modifications and extensions of present curricula.

Although some professionals in the field are aware of changing needs and how to meet them, responsibility for clearly delineating needs, alternative approaches, and means available to meeting these, falls to professional leaders.

Top echelon leaders characteristically have advanced degrees, in addition to breadth of information and seasoned judgment derived from years of continuous service in the profession. In professions made up predominately of women, the pool of reserve from which leadership with these characteristics can be drawn is sharply limited.

¹ Data from Dr. Myrna Crabtree, Director of Home Economics Education, Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education

² Includes: 175 - 4-year high schools, 157 - private high schools
66 - senior high schools, 54 - 6-year high schools
7 - evening high schools

This is underscored by that fact that women earn only 1 in 3 of the M.A.'s awarded, and only 1 in 10 the Ph.D's. These ratios represent a decline as compared to 1930's when 2 out of 5 B.A.'s and M.A.'s and 1 out of 7 Ph.D's were earned by women.³ Specifically with reference to home economics, Coon states, "that by 1962 overall trends in graduate theses were stationary in spite of rises in college enrollment ... The decline in national net supply (of professionals with advanced degrees) is lowered another 10% when figures for the past 5 years (1957-1962) are corrected for the increasing numbers of graduate students from abroad ..."⁴ Not only is the number of women with advanced degree qualifications limited, but inasmuch as the characteristic pattern of women working includes an absence from employment for a 10-15-year period for child rearing, the number of women with breadth of information and seasoned judgment from continuous service in the profession, is also limited.

Specifically with reference to public school districts in New Jersey, there were 900 home economics teachers, in 1965-66, for whom the highest degree held was a Bachelors, 193 with Masters degrees, and 2 with Doctorates.⁵

Teachers who have earned advanced degrees are not, ipso facto, leaders, interested in and able to initiate change in home economics programs within the school where they teach, as well as in other schools. Rather this group constitutes a pool of potential leadership. Factual information indicating the numbers and types of informal leaders is not available. The size of the pool of human resources, however, is not large. Persons with advanced degrees were unevenly distributed in counties throughout the state. The range was from 0 in Cape May County to 39 in Essex. The number in specific counties appeared to be related to the size of total population in the county.

At the present time only two state colleges, two private colleges and two undergraduate colleges at Rutgers offer undergraduate degrees in Home Economics. Master degree programs are offered only at Rutgers and Montclair. The Home Economics Unit of the Division of Vocational Education of the State Department of Education has three full-time members. These resources are limited to meet the need for preparation at the undergraduate, graduate levels, and to provide on-going in-service education. With the impetus for changes in home economics, the availability and effectiveness of in-service education is of serious concern.

³Report of the President's Commission on the Status of Women, American Women, 1963, p. 11.

⁴Callie Mae Coons, "Long-Term Trends in Graduate Theses in Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, March, 1964, Vol. 56, No. 2, p. 156.

⁵Office of Statistical Services, Report No. 286, December, 1966.

Efforts for in-service education must cope with the added obstacle of getting women to participate, since many are wives and mothers with attendant demands on their time. To participate in in-service education involves the actual time in workshops or meetings, and in many cases of even greater deterrence value, travel time, baby-sitters, meals out for herself and her family. Thus, intensive preparation of selected home economics teachers to serve as leaders of in-service workshops for other teachers within a small geographical area would minimize some of these deterrents, while extending the effective use of teacher education institutions and State Department of Education personnel.

Workshop leaders drawn from teachers may prove particularly effective since the interaction is on a "teacher-to-teacher" level rather than "supervisor-to-teacher." Workshops may extend and reinforce communication networks among teachers through which needed support and encouragement can be available as participants seek to implement changes in curriculum.

In sum, this report describes a pilot study to test a design for increasing the number of leaders within the profession, who, within the context of in-service workshops, can initiate change in selected aspects of program development. In view of the present and anticipated needs for curriculum innovation, this "action research" project is timely and of significance. The remainder of this chapter describes the objectives of the pilot study and the project design.

Objectives of Pilot Study

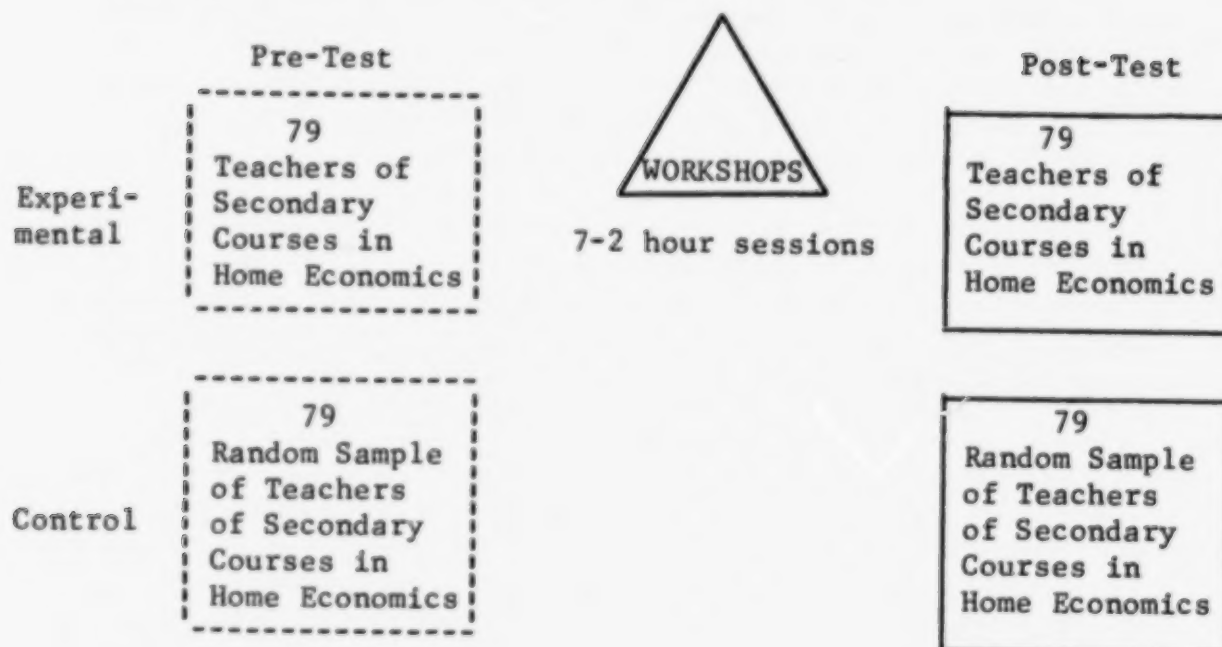
The purpose of this pilot study was to test the effectiveness of a design for bringing about curriculum change. The design for initiating curriculum change involved the preparation of a core of home economics teachers to serve as leaders of carefully planned in-service workshops for other home economics teachers. The purpose of the workshops was to motivate participants to incorporate wage-earning emphases in the secondary school home economics program in which each was teaching. The content of each session of the workshop was planned and organized to achieve this purpose.

The objectives of the pilot study were:

1. to test procedures for selecting and training in-service workshop leaders; to develop and test in-service workshop content and materials; to identify problems in arranging for and implementing in-service workshops throughout the state.
2. to test and refine instruments used to evaluate the outcomes of the workshops in relationship to selected teacher characteristics.

Project Design

The project design is described in the diagram.



The design is quasi-experimental. Teachers in the experimental group were selected from those who did not have occupation courses and who were within geographical proximity to workshop locations. Where the number of teachers exceeded 18 (the maximum number to be invited) a random sampling technique was employed to decide which 18 would be invited.

A control group was selected by a random sampling technique from a list of names of all secondary teachers of home economics in the state after the names of workshop participants were excluded. The control group was used primarily to be able to answer these two questions:

1. What characteristics and to what extent do teachers in the experimental group differ from being representative of secondary home economics teachers in the state, thus limiting the extent to which findings can be generalized?
2. To what extent can changes in curriculum be attributed to the stimulus, i.e., in-service workshops, rather than to other factors such as reading about and implementing curriculum ideas from professional literature, contact with teachers who have modified courses in other schools, and administrative pressure?

The control group would be affected by such factors while not experiencing the in-service workshops. Teachers in the experimental group would be subject to both types of influences.

The experimental and control groups are demarcated in the diagram under pre-test with broken lines to indicate a departure from the usual pre-test and post-test design. The classical design procedure is to test, introduce stimulus, then re-test. In this study pre-test data were obtained at the same time as post-test data. The rationale was as follows: data of strategic concern pertained to incorporating wage-earning emphases in home economics courses and/or programs. As indicated, teachers in the experimental group were selected from those known not to have occupational courses (a type of pre-test from external sources of data). Further, respondents were asked the dates during which curriculum changes reported were planned and implemented. From this datum it was possible to determine if change was planned and/or implemented before, during, or after the in-service workshops. Similar data from control group respondents made it possible to assess the amount of change in curriculum which might have been expected to occur without in-service workshops.

Although a departure from the classical experimental design model, several factors made it an acceptable procedure. First, the type of curriculum change being considered is sufficiently complex that teachers making these changes would have done so with forethought and planning. Thus, a usual objection that they would not recall accurately the time of change is quite unlikely. Secondly, pre-test interviews, as always, would have to be considered as a potential stimulus to change affecting to an unknown degree the results of the post-test. Thirdly, it reduced cost of the investigation without jeopardizing the validity of the results.

In sum, the project was designed as quasi-experimental. Teacher-led in-service workshops were the stimulus to change. The selection and preparation of leaders, planning content, selecting teacher participants, arranging for, conducting and evaluating each session of the workshops constitute the action component of the project. The research phase was planned to select potentially relevant variables and to test measurements of the same. These efforts constitute preliminary steps to ultimately answering these questions:

1. Do the teacher-led in-service workshops motivate a higher proportion of teachers to change curriculum than might otherwise be expected?
2. Are there discernible differences on selected characteristics between workshop participants who change curriculum and workshop participants who do not change curriculum?

Chapter III describes the action phase.

CHAPTER III

STIMULUS FOR CHANGE

The impetus of this action research project was the acknowledged responsibility of home economists to contribute to preparation for gainful employment in entry level jobs. Fulfilling this responsibility, in some cases, necessitated the extension of existing high school programs to include home economics related occupation courses. The content of workshop sessions was the incorporation of wage-earning emphases in home economics. The task to be accomplished was threefold:

1. To disseminate information relevant to the questions:

Why wage-earning emphases in home economics?

What information is relevant for making decisions about curricula for wage-earning?

How does one obtain this information?

How can wage-earning programs be initiated, implemented and evaluated?

2. To provide for an exchange of ideas, opinions, and experiences related to the content which would facilitate learning, and equally important, enable each teacher to arrive at an informed position concerning this added dimension to home economics.
3. To indirectly contribute to increasing effective classroom instruction by providing the best feasible model of effective instruction which could be conceived by the project staff within the resources available.

Selection of Leaders

Teachers to serve as leaders were selected on the following criteria: demonstrated understanding of, and ability to communicate, the need for occupational education and information relevant to necessary curriculum change; that as a group, leaders be from geographically dispersed areas throughout the state. This latter criterion was used as a basis for selection in order that each leader could serve in an area close to her residence, thus reducing some deterrents to participating and so that the workshop design could be tested in a number of locales within the state. Locations from which leaders were drawn and at which workshops were conducted were:

Wayne
Red Bank
Bridgewater-Raritan

Cranford
Mount Holly

Newark
Pitman

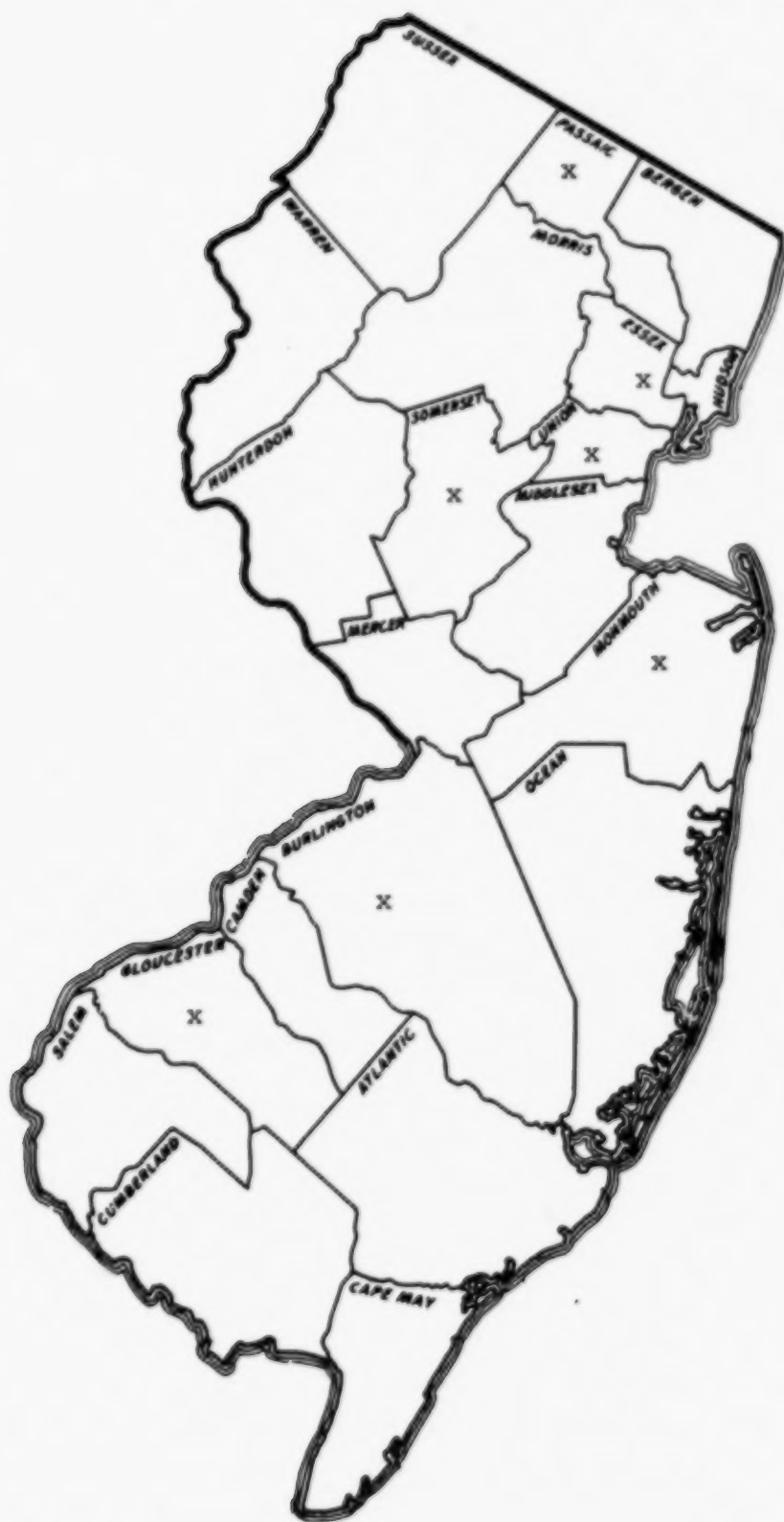


FIGURE 1 - LOCATION OF IN-SERVICE WORKSHOPS

The locations are marked on the map of New Jersey, see Figure 1, to show the geographical dispersion. A larger number of workshops were located in the northeastern section of the state since this area is the most densely populated.

Identification and eventual selection of teachers to serve as leaders was on the basis of knowing some from a graduate course in Recent Developments in Home Economics Education, consultation with the Director of Home Economics Education, State Department and other home economists at teacher education institutions. Each potential leader was approached personally. In each case the preferred person accepted the position to serve as a leader and to participate in leadership preparation. Remuneration was on an hourly rate of six dollars.

Planning In-Service Workshop Content

The original intent was to have all leaders participate in the planning of workshop content for seven two-hour sessions. In actuality it was not feasible to find a time within the limitations of the project when all seven leaders, and project staff could work together for a concentrated extended period. Consequently, a compromise course of action was followed and during the week of August 21, 1967, five leaders,⁶ a graduate assistant and the principal investigator began to meet for seven hours daily. The first morning was spent in describing the project to the leaders, and clearly identifying the specific responsibilities of leaders throughout the project. The specific task of the leaders at this point was defined as: namely, to select the content of seven sessions of an in-service workshop, to plan learning experiences, and to generate ideas for teaching aids. It was agreed that work would continue until the job was complete, throughout the week, and into the week of August 28th if need be. The resource materials available were provided for each leader. Materials were reviewed with the leaders.

The resources from which workshop materials were selected had been developed in a graduate course, Recent Developments in Home Economics Education during the summers of 1966 and 1967. Behavioral scientists had been asked to speak on topics considered relevant to understanding the importance of home economists contributing to preparation for gainful employment. A sociologist, social-psychologist, anthropologist, and economist spoke about women in gainful employment, psychology of the culturally deprived, the culture of poverty, and surveying employment opportunities in the community. Teachers of home economics related occupations courses were asked to describe these courses in terms of designated areas, i.e., events leading to planning and initiating the course, physical facilities, scheduling, a typical day for the teacher, a typical day for the student, course content, methods used, funding, evaluation, and concerns for the future.

6

Due to previous commitments, one of the five was absent two afternoons and one day.

The sixth leader had agreed to come, but her family extended their vacation in Canada during that week.

Each resource person either prepared a written presentation or the talk was taped, typed and submitted for revision by the resource person. These mimeographed materials in addition to other materials from various sources constituted the reservoir of materials with which leaders became familiar and from which much of the workshop content was drawn. Planning the workshop sessions brought to the fore, gaps in available materials. Where this became evident, materials were developed.

The need for spontaneous sharing of ideas and feelings, and the worth of the group product, was emphasized throughout. From the second day on, the five leaders worked as a well integrated group, structuring tasks, completing these and moving to the next. In this manner, by August 25th, the group had completed lesson plans for seven workshop sessions. As each session was completed, the plan was duplicated. When all seven sessions were complete, the final afternoon was directed to re-examining and revising these. Since one of the five had not been free to participate in all of the planning and the sixth in none, on August 30th these two leaders met with the graduate assistant and went over the materials prepared during the previous week's work. The rationale was that during this period these two leaders would become familiar with the group's planning. Of equal significance, however, the work of the group would be subject to review and possible extension by a leader who had not been a participant, but who as a Recent Developments course student and one who had an occupational course, was well versed in the subject.

From this planning the workshop kit developed. Materials developed for each session included:

1. session plan for leaders.
2. mimeographed papers on session topic to be distributed to participants.
3. visual.
4. evaluation form.

The written materials were available to the leader in the form of a Leaders Manual.

Sessions differed in relation to specific aims of each. The commonalities which did exist emerged from the concern to provide a model for effective instruction. Thus, each session began with a review and summary of the preceding session (two week's lapse of time between sessions). A flannel board visual was developed which was cumulative in nature. A prop was added for each session, and the visual was present at all times to symbolize the content of preceding sessions.

Each session was patterned for movement. For example, review and summary to focussed discussion and widespread participation, to leader presentation, to group formulation of conclusions, to group focussed discussion, to evaluation, to termination.

To illustrate, the session plan for the second session:

GROUPS OF STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

- | | <u>Time
Allotted</u> |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Summarize major points from Session 1 with use of visual. | 10 min. |
| 2. What groups of students in your school might benefit from training which would enable them to enter some HERO* job after graduation? First, let us consider some groups of students who have special needs. It has been stated that these groups have special needs because special educational programs are needed if these young persons are to be educated effectively to become productive citizens. | |
| Provocative words
(One word presented at a time and ideas given are drawn together before going to the next word.) | 20 min. |
| Discussion lead-in: | |
| What characteristics come to mind when you hear this word? | |
| a. learning difficulties | Write characteristics given on board |
| When you hear this word? | |
| b. culturally deprived | |
| Let's try another: | |
| c. drop-ins | |
| 3. Each participant draws a statement from a bag. Leader calls on person with number 1 through 6 to read hers and comment on it. Group discusses each. Leader directs group thinking to fallacious aspects of statement. | 30 min. |
| Use visual to summarize this. | |

*HERO - Home Economics Related Occupation

	<u>Time Allotted</u>
4. Overview of papers	30 min.
a. Kievit	
b. Sloane	

Conclusion: Groups of students with special needs should have the opportunity to enter educational programs designed to enable each to acquire the competencies necessary for entering the world of work. Such programs must include experiences which students find relevant and meaningful; in which each can feel some success.

Distribute copies of papers.

Discussion:

25 min.

Formulate questions which would be useful in identifying students who would be viewed as having special needs in the schools represented by participants.

Distribute questionnaire for each participant's use. Ask, are there some we came up with not included here? Let us add it (them). Next session, we shall begin by sharing whatever information we collected on this.

Distribute and collect evaluation forms.

5 min.

Threads:

- a. individuality of each situation, and each child;
- b. worth of child with special needs;
- c. use of positive reinforcements;
- d. time available for teacher to care.

During the planning, leaders frequently identified ideas which they wanted to emphasize throughout. It was decided to refer to these as "threads" and specify these on session plans as reminders.

As illustrated, each session was planned in considerable detail. (See Appendix A for leaders' plans for sessions 1-7). Several important considerations made this essential. Planning was done in August, 1968 and workshops were to begin in January, 1969. The time lapse, as well as other factors, would have encouraged much diversity in the content presented and the manner of presentation among the seven leaders had each session been focussed but unstructured. For the research phase of the project to have any possibility of validity, it was crucial that the workshops, as the stimulus for change, be as much the same as possible within the task to be accomplished. Recognizing, however, that what seemed effective while

planning might seem quite stilted in the workshop session, leaders were encouraged to view these plans as a guide, not a prescription; to make modifications where necessary; and to record for each session what these changes were.

Evaluation Procedures of Workshop Content

An evaluation form was developed for each workshop session. The questions were specific to the content, presentation, participant involvement, use of materials, and a global rating.

The evaluation form for session 2 is illustrative and follows. Appendix A provides forms 1-7.

NAME _____

LEADER'S NAME _____

Session 2: STUDENT GROUPS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Place a check by the phrases which best describe your view and a ? if undecided:

1. The discussion of the characteristics of groups of students with special needs: ____ extended my understanding; ____ is applicable to my present teaching; ____ seemed irrelevant; ____ repeated what I already know; ____ helped clarify the need HERO; ____ was uninteresting.
2. The myths discussed; ____ made me understand the group better; ____ still seem accurate to me; ____ was stimulating; ____ seemed a waste of time; ____ was uninteresting.
3. Materials distributed last session: ____ haven't had time to examine; ____ I read; ____ will be useful now; ____ seem of dubious value now; ____ will be useful later; ____ seem of dubious value even later.
4. The amount of involvement of participants has been: ____ just right; ____ too much by too few; ____ not enough.
5. In all, I rate this session as: ____ excellent; ____ good; ____ fair; ____ poor.

Remarks: (Something outstandingly poor? Any ideas for improvement?
Something outstandingly good?)

(Remainder of 8½ x 11 page for this question.)

Evaluation forms were placed in mailing envelopes addressed to the project director. They were returned after each session, thus providing a routine procedure of communication and an indication of any difficulties which might develop.

The total workshop kit included the following:

1. Leader's Manual - Contents:

Session 1: Orientation and Organization*

"Women: Usefully and Gainfully Employed," Mary B. Kievit
"Women Workers in New Jersey," Georgina Smith
"Recent Developments in Home Economics in New Jersey and the Nation," Myrna Crabtree
Seminar on Manpower Policy and Program - "Womanpower Policies for the 1970's" by Wilbur Cohen
Workshop Evaluation (Leader's form)*
Participants' Evaluation Form

Session 2: Groups of Students with Special Needs*

"Myths" for discussion*
Answers to the Myths*
"Students in Need of Vocational Education," Mary B. Kievit
"The Culturally Deprived," Morton D. Sloane
Excerpts from "Pawns or Players" by Eugene McCreary
Seminar on Manpower Policy and Program, "Contribution of Ethnic Groups," Edward Hall
Identifying Students with Special Needs, Survey Guide
Participants' Evaluation Form

Session 3: Surveying Characteristics of Students, Resources of the School, and Employment Needs of the Local Community*

"Determining Employment Opportunities in the Community," Georgina Smith
"New Jersey State Employment Service Assistance in Developing Plans for the Home Economics Curriculum," Edward McGill
Directory of Local Employment Offices*
"Advisory Committees for Home Economics Education," Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education
Participants' Evaluation Form

Session 4: Ways of Incorporating a Wage-Earning Emphasis*

"Four Ways of Incorporating a Wage-Earning Emphasis," Mary B. Kievit
Diversified Occupational Training - Cranford High School (A)*
(B) Child Care*
(C) Clothing Related Occupations*
(D) Food Service Slides* (Script for use with slides)
(E) Hotel-Motel Training*
(Case studies)
Diversified Occupations at Cranford High School
Child Care Aid Program in Edison High School
Clothing Related Occupations at Piscataway High School
Clothing Maintenance and Alteration - Edison Twp. Schools
Food Related Occupational Training - Keyport High School
Food Service Course at Camden Comprehensive High School
Hotel-Motel and Food Service, Trenton High School, Vocational Division
Pilot Program - Child Care & Development - East Brunswick High School
Recent Developments at Clifton High School
Participants' Evaluation Form

Session 5: How to Implement a Wage-Earning Emphasis*

Flow Chart for Initiating Wage-Earning Programs
"Job Analysis" by Charles C. Drawbaugh
Job Analysis Form
"Home Economics Related Occupational Clusters for Comprehensive High Schools," Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education
Glossary of Terms
Participants' Evaluation Form

Session 6: How to Develop a HERO*

"General Employability" by Merna Samples
Personal Data Folder (sample application form)
"Old Methods: New Dimensions," Mary B. Kievit
"You Don't Have to Lecture," Beverly M. Savidge
"Public Relations Activities to Promote an Occupations Program,"
Cora Foltz
(Sample Brochures)
Diversified Occupations in Home Economics at Cranford High School*
Bridgeton High School - Vocational Homemaking Department Training
Girls for Jobs*
Posters
(Sample courses of study)
Occupational Mix: Team Teaching
Preparation for Employment in Food Service
Guides for Developing Teaching Plans in Preparation for Employment in
Clothing-Related Occupations
Sample Wage-Earning Training Program for: Child Day Care Aid
Vocational Home Economics Programs for Youth as Housekeeping Aides for
Hotels, Motels, Homes, and other Public Buildings
A Sample Wage-Earning Training Program for: Short Order Cook
Color Slides - Food Preparation - where available
A Suggested Training Program - Management Aide in Low-Rent Public
Housing Projects*
Participants' Evaluation Form

Session 7: Evaluation, Summary, and Application*

"Evaluation" by Merna Samples
Excerpts on Evaluation
Participants' Evaluation Form
References*

2. Eight 9½ x 14" expanding Oxford envelopes containing materials to be distributed to participants, name cards, and session evaluation forms in a brown-mailing envelope addressed to the principal investigator for mailing after each workshop session.

Materials for each session were placed in an envelope with the session number clearly indicated on a label. In Session 6, sample courses of studies were distributed. These were lengthy and thus two envelopes were required. In most cases materials were supplied sufficient for 15 participants.

3. Ten binders were provided each leader, to be distributed to participants for keeping the mimeograph materials in order for easy reference.
4. Visuals included the following:
 - 1 - 4' x 6' flannel board with illustrations relevant to women in the labor force (Session 1), to be used in each session for purposes of summarizing sessions.
 - 1 - three-dimensional HERO sandwich constructed from plywood, foam rubber and fabric, to symbolize Home Economics Related Occupations (HERO). (Used in Session 1.)
 - 1 - white paper bag with an exploding red firecracker depicted, to be used in Session 2 to "explode" myths about students with special needs. (See Session 2 plan in Appendix B.)
 - 1 - set of 109 color slides, taken of occupational programs in New Jersey, with accompanying script. These include -
 - Child Care Aid Program at Edison
 - Clothing-Related Occupations at Edison
 - Clothing-Related Occupations at Piscataway
 - Food Service at Keyport
 - Food-Related Occupations at Camden
 - Food Service at Trenton
 - Hotel-Motel Aides at Trenton
 - Diversified Occupations at Cranford
 - 1 - set of nine 8" x 10" photographs in plastic sheet protectors of Child Care Aid Program at Bridgeton, and Home Management Aids Program at Bridgeton.
 - 1 - plexiglas visual to reinforce concept of School-Community cooperation.
 - 1 - three-dimensional visual, styrofoam balls, to reinforce similarities and differences of resource person and community technician.
 - 1 - record and filmstrip "One Hour for Connie" shows operations of a dry-cleaning establishment.
 - 1 - set of slides showing some skill or procedure in quantity foods, with accompanying script.
 - 1 - flip chart, for use in discussing various procedures of evaluating student progress and HERO programs.

*Throughout description of Leader's Manual, this denotes materials available only to the leader. All other materials were prepared in quantity to be distributed to each participant.

From September, 1968 to January, 1969 materials for the workshops were prepared. Leaders met for an all-day meeting in early December. They were informed about arrangements for the workshops, selection of participants, and preparation of workshop materials. The rest of the morning was devoted to the topic, "Group Dynamics in Workshops." Relevant ideas and content were presented and then discussed. The main areas included were:

- A. The needs of group members
The role of the leader in meeting some of these needs, and provision for some needs in plans for each workshop session, e.g., involvement.
- B. Group activities which contribute to productivity
 - 1. Initiating
 - 2. Clarifying
 - 3. Elaborating
 - 4. Integrating
- C. Activities which improve analysis of problems
 - 1. Fact-finding
 - 2. Analyzing
 - 3. Activating
- D. Activities which increase group solidarity and progress
 - 1. Encouraging
 - 2. Appreciating
 - 3. Mediating
 - 4. Self-disciplining
 - 5. Being the group's conscience
- E. Importance of physical setting and seating arrangement
- F. Problem members and alternative courses of action which leader may take to maintain or improve group productivity.

During the afternoon session, workshop materials and visual aids for sessions 1, 2, and 3 were presented and discussed. Session Evaluating Forms which had been developed by the project staff were presented for the leaders' suggestions and reaction. Use of forms was discussed.

The leaders came for an all-day meeting, prior to the opening workshop session. Information about participants in each workshop was disseminated. Materials and visuals for sessions 4, 5, 6, and 7 were discussed. Leaders' Manuals were assembled. Each leader took her "workshop kit," which was described above.

Arrangements for Workshops

The original plan was to hold workshop sessions in the schools where leaders were teaching. In three cases, however, to have the workshop so located would have reduced the number of participants. For these three workshops, school facilities more favorably situated were obtained.

Letters requesting use of school facilities for the workshop sessions were sent to the superintendent of the school district with a carbon to the principal. A self-addressed postcard form to facilitate reply was enclosed. All requests were granted.

Scheduling Workshops

Each workshop was scheduled for seven two-hour sessions to be held on alternate weeks during the months January, 1969 through April, 1969. The alternate week scheduling was thought to provide time for assimilation of ideas and information; to interfere less with family routine; to provide an alternate meeting date, if a session had to be cancelled. Some flexibility of time, late afternoon or evening, was left to the leader and group. Workshops at all locations did in fact meet immediately after school. The actual starting hour varied from 3 p.m. to 3:45 p.m. Letters to administrators requested that teachers be given some released time, if necessary, to travel to the workshop location.

Selection of Teacher Participants

The procedure for selecting teachers invited to the workshop was as follows. The names of home economic high school teachers within a 10, 25, and 40-mile radius of a workshop location were listed. The number of potential workshop participants varied for each workshop, the numbers being less in moderately or sparsely populated areas of the state than in the more densely populated northeastern counties. The names of teachers in schools where pilot projects existed were not included. Total number of potential participants listed in the above manner is reported by workshop location, as well as the number attending.

<u>County in Which Workshop Located</u>	<u>Number of Potential Participants</u>	<u>Number Attending</u>
Burlington	26	6
Essex	46	10
Gloucester	23	13
Monmouth	37	14
Passaic	44	20
Somerset	21	11
Union	41	14

Conceptually, the list of names constituted a list of positions. This became important since the Directory of Home Economics Teachers, 1967-68,

was not complete at the time the lists were compiled and the selection made. When the 1967-68 directory was available, it became apparent that the expected loss and replacement of some teachers had occurred. By having sampled "positions" rather than specific persons, the replacement for a teacher who had left a position received the invitation. This is closely akin to area sampling of household units as contrasted to sampling a designated universe of persons. Letters of invitation were not sent until the names of teachers currently in the positions selected could be verified.

A total of 18 teachers from each list was invited in an effort to assure that participants would number between 10 and 15 in each workshop. Since many schools apparently do not designate a chairman of the home economics department, comparatively few names were so identified. Where a person was identified as chairman, she received an invitation. In cases where no chairman was designated, or where more than one teacher from a school was to be invited, a random sampling technique was used to select which of them would be invited. Where the numbers of potential participants exceeded eighteen, a random sampling technique was used to determine which teachers would receive invitations.

A letter was sent to the superintendent of schools, with carbons to the principal and teacher, stating that the teacher had been selected to participate. A self-addressed postcard was enclosed with several alternatives which could be checked to facilitate a prompt reply. Letters were sent four to five weeks prior to the first workshop sessions.

Letters confirming the date and location of the workshop were sent approximately 10 days prior to the workshop to each teacher who had responded that she planned to attend. At the same time, a combined confirmation and repeat invitation letter, with a self-addressed postcard enclosed, was sent to all teachers who had been invited but who had not indicated their intent.

Motivating Teachers to Attend

Since each workshop session had been integrated with the others to move from the "Why" to the "How," it was considered essential that participants be reasonably regular in attendance. Attention was given to providing for both extrinsic and intrinsic motivational forces, limited though these were. Emphasis in letters was placed upon the fact that teacher participants had been selected to be invited; that participation was not open to all. It was thought that administrators being informed about the invitation extended may have produced some support for attending. Through the cooperation of the Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education, certificates of completion of one credit in-service education were given participants who were present for a minimum of six of the seven sessions. Last, a diligent effort was made to make each session informative, thought-provoking and of such value that participants would want to attend each session.

Evaluation of Action Phase

The most rigorous test of the action phase of the project is whether or not teacher participants modify or extend existing curricula as a result of in-service workshops. Since the workshops were complex stimuli, it is crucial to have some assessment as to whether the content was adequate; whether the leadership was adequate, and involvement of participants sufficient. Thus, the first objective of the project was:

To assess procedures for selecting and training in-service workshop leaders; to develop and test in-service workshop content and materials; to identify problems in arranging for and implementing in-service workshops throughout the state.

Procedures for Selecting and Training In-Service Workshop Leaders

Data for this assessment were informal observations of leaders; tabulation of participant evaluation responses by workshop; reactions of leaders in post-workshop evaluation conferences.

The procedure of selecting leaders was adequate to the extent that within four weeks it was possible to obtain the agreement of six teachers to serve. The seventh leader was not available until later, and agreed to lead a workshop when first approached. Five of the leaders had been in a class of the project director or had served as resource persons for a class. These associations provided the opportunity to assess communication skills, understanding of the content, and interpersonal skills. Two leaders were recommended through a teacher educator and the Director of Home Economics, State Department. Conferences with these persons verified the recommendations.

On the basis of planning sessions, it was quite evident that each leader was very much involved and each contributed in a uniquely different way. One leader who was not able to participate in the week of planning, commented how well planned each session was, posing no difficulty in implementing although she had not been involved.

The project director attended three workshop sessions. The first session scheduled in Essex County, the second session in Monmouth County, and the third in Burlington. The first session constituted a test of the extensive planning, careful preparation of materials, and leadership training. Use of the written materials, visuals, and leader presentation and group discussions went well. As a result of observing this session, it was noted that a calendar of workshop session dates and topics had not been included as intended. It also became evident, that greater specificity in use of the evaluation forms was needed. Following this session, all leaders received calendars, and directions for use of the forms. Since the Essex County workshop was scheduled on Monday, and all others were scheduled later in the week, other leaders received this information prior to the first workshop session. The remaining two observations provided evidence of leader confidence and competency.

Leaders were encouraged to call in event of problems or questions during the months of the workshops. Emphasis was placed upon the fact that this was an experiment and problems should be expected. The requests that leaders made were predominately for materials for those groups where the number of participants exceeded the expected number. Each leader completed a type of evaluation form for each session, where she indicated any modification of procedures. These were mailed after each workshop session. To a large extent, the information provided indicated few problems with content and frequently indicated that the session had progressed smoothly. Factors in the Essex County situations, namely, racial tensions in the city of Newark and environs, did pose some concern and resulted in several changes in meeting dates.

An analysis of ratings of participants by workshop found no significant variation (i.e., by leader). Observable differences were slight, numbering a few cases, and were undoubtedly due to chance. (See Appendix A.)

Development and Testing of Content and Materials

To each question asked on evaluation forms for each session, an overwhelming majority gave a positive response. Responses to the open-ended questions were positive, with a few which might be interpreted as negative. Responses to the global rating item for each session is reported in the following table.

Table 3.1 Results of Global Rating Item by Session

<u>Session</u>	<u>Excellent</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Total N</u>
1	28	45	3	-	76
2	44	35	2	1	82
3	35	43	2	0	80
4	23	47	3	0	73
5	24	41	5	0	70
6	30	39	5	0	74
7	35	38	2	1	76
<u>Total</u>	<u>219</u>	<u>288</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>531</u>

It should be noted that participants were asked to write their names on the evaluation forms, which also served as an attendance record. The question was raised with leaders as to whether teachers were less candid and more favorable in their evaluations. Two leaders reported that they encouraged participants to be frank and that without looking at responses,

the forms were placed in the mailing envelope and sealed in the presence of participants. Other leaders encouraged participants to be candid but made no obvious effort to assure anonymity. As reported above, there were no significant differences between workshops. Further, since this was a situation in which leaders were not evaluating participants, there was little to be lost by being candid and negative. Evidence gained from sources other than evaluation forms, support the validity of the positive ratings and are reported below.

The evaluation form for Session 7 included the question, "Do you think this same workshop should be continued for other teachers in the state?" Out of 75 responding, 91% (68) said "yes," 8% (6) were undecided and one did not respond.

Consistent with the above evidence, seventy-seven teachers met the requirements to receive the certificate, i.e., missed no more than one session. This is approximately 88 percent of the total number who started the workshops (88).

On the basis of these data, the conclusion is that procedures for selecting and training leaders were adequate.

With reference to leadership preparation, there was consensus among leaders that a requirement should be that to lead workshops in this content area, a teacher must have two of the following three experiences: Teach an occupational course; have taken a Recent Developments course emphasizing wage-earning; be involved in all planning of workshop session content.

Leaders suggested some revision of content. These were:

1. Abbreviate material on women workers in Session 1 and incorporate it with Session 2 content on students with special needs.
2. Session 5 could incorporate some of the content presented in Session 6 which was too concentrated and pressured for the time available.

They suggested that size of visuals be planned in relation to facilities. The facilities used were varied. The flannel board was larger than essential and in some settings was cumbersome.

It was noted that a "very good" category should be added to the global rating. There was consensus that some teacher participants would rarely give an "excellent" rating, but did consider sessions better than "good" (the next highest rating).

Problems Identified in Arranging for Workshops and Implementing Workshops

The one major question is how to interpret the refusal to attend of one-third of the invited teachers. Practically speaking, the number of teachers invited should allow for this rate of refusal. The characteristics of a portion of this group will be reported in a later section.

In conclusion, the action phase of the project was implemented as planned. Leaders were selected and trained, and planned workshop content. Materials were prepared. Facilities obtained. Teachers selected and invited to attend. Workshops began in seven locations in the state in early January. The last sessions were conducted in early and mid-April. Evaluative data indicated that the workshop sessions as viewed by participants and leaders were successful. Chapters IV and V present the specific research questions, sample selection, data collection and findings.

CHAPTER IV

WAGE-EARNING EMPHASES

Introduction

The objective of this research phase of the project was to select potentially relevant variables and to test measurements of the same to the end of ultimately answering these questions:

1. Do teacher-led in-service workshops motivate a higher proportion of teachers to change curriculum than might be expected?
2. Are there discernible differences, statistically significant, on selected characteristics between workshop participants who change curriculum and workshop participants who do not change curriculum?

These constitute the key questions in broad terms. The second question particularly was reformulated in more specific terms. In addition to these two questions, others of relevance were formulated in terms of which data were obtained and analyzed. The description of this phase of the project is organized in terms of: populations, data collection, analysis, research questions, variables, measurement, findings, and summary.

Populations

As indicated in Chapter I the project design was quasi-experimental. Data were obtained from these populations:

1. A random sample of 95 positions (i.e., approximately 20 percent) was drawn from a total of 480 secondary home economics positions excluding teachers participating in the workshops. Data were obtained from 79 teachers. This constituted 83 percent of the sample. Four requests for interviews were returned unclaimed. Three of the sample drawn subsequently attended workshops and were eliminated from the control group. Two teachers new in their positions preferred not to be interviewed. Two were exchange teachers from other countries and were excluded. One was teaching at the junior high level and was excluded. Four were excluded from schools where another teacher had been interviewed when the decision was made to limit the control group to 79 cases. As was anticipated of a sample drawn to be representative, teachers in the control group were located in schools throughout the state.
2. Seventy-nine teacher-participants in the workshops selected as described previously (pp. 30-31) and referred to as the experimental group.

3. Teachers invited to attend the workshops who did not attend. There were 43 teachers in this category. Data were obtained from 28, i.e., 65 percent. This group is referred to as non-participants. Data were also obtained from the seven leaders for descriptive purposes.

Data Collection

Teachers in the control group provided data through interview and self-administered questionnaire completed immediately after the interview. (See Appendix B.) Teachers to be interviewed were sent a letter with an enclosed postcard requesting their cooperation by indicating a time at which an interview could be scheduled. This was returned to the interviewer, who in turn confirmed the time and date. This contact procedure was modified after the first fifteen interviews by sending a letter to the principal with a carbon to the teacher requesting an interview. Ninety percent of the interviews were conducted by one interviewer, and the remaining 10 percent by the project director. Each interview and completion of the questionnaire required approximately 45 to 75 minutes, depending upon whether wage-earning emphases were a part of the home economics program. Data collection was completed for the control group during a seven-month period, October through April.

The data from workshop participants and leaders were obtained in the workshop sessions. The questionnaires were collected during the fifth session.

Data pertaining to demographic characteristics and incorporation of wage-earning emphases were collected in the last workshop session. These procedures were a revision of original plans which had been to collect data from participants in a one-to-one situation as had been done with the control group. The experience with the control group indicated that the time required to collect data in this way prohibited its use with the workshop participants. Time, in another context, had relevance. Data were elicited to indicate whether or not workshop participants had modified or extended curricula to incorporate wage-earning emphases. It was recognized that such modifications required time for planning and implementation. Participants could not be reasonably expected to have made major modifications by the conclusion of the fourteen weeks in which workshops were conducted; nor a month later. Thus, obtaining this information at this time constituted a means of testing the interview schedule and questionnaire, rather than providing a rigorous test of the effect of the workshops in initiating curriculum change. Rigorous testing of the effect could only occur after a one-year interval at the minimum, and a follow-up study with this objective is now in process.

Teachers invited to attend the workshops and who did not, were sent a modified questionnaire (see Appendix B) with a stamped self-addressed return envelope. This group is referred to hereafter in the report as non-participants.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data were coded and keypunched for machine tabulation. Analysis proceeded by comparing responses from workshop participants (experimental group), the random sample of home economics teachers (control group), and teachers invited to workshops but not attending (non-participants). Means and medians were computed where appropriate. When observable differences of some magnitude were evident, chi-square was the statistical measure used to ascertain the probability with which these differences would have occurred solely by chance.

The experimental and control group respondents were differentiated further into four sub-populations. These were:

Experimental group:

1. Wage-earning emphases; defined as one or more positive answers to four questions, i.e., wage-earning emphases were presently taught by the respondent or some other home economics teacher in the school, or plans were in process to incorporate a wage-earning emphases by the respondent or some other teacher.
2. No wage-earning emphases; negative responses to all four questions referred to above.

Control group:

1. Wage-earning emphases; definition the same as for experimental group.
2. No wage-earning emphases; definition same as for the experimental group.

Several major considerations prevailed in making the decision to define the sub-populations in terms of the criteria specified. One was the number of cases in each sub-population which was a direct outcome of the criteria used. The most rigorous and much preferred criterion would have been whether or not the respondent had incorporated wage-earning emphases. The time element as described previously, made this criterion unrealistic. Preliminary analysis indicated that 9 of the experimental group and 22 of the control reported having incorporated a wage-earning emphases. The small number of cases mitigated against anything but purely suggestive findings. Since the purpose of the pilot was to test the adequacy of the interview schedule and questionnaire, with the rigorous test of change to be the subject of a follow-up study, the less rigorous definition of wage-earning emphases was selected for presentation of the pilot study results.

It is essential that significant differences between respondents in the Experimental: Wage-earning Emphases and Control: Wage-earning Emphases sub-populations be kept in mind while interpreting the results. Specifically, respondents in the experimental wage-earning category reported plans in process or having integrated some wage-earning emphases in existing courses. Only 3 occupational courses are represented in this category, and these courses were being taught by teachers other than the respondent. In sharp contrast, 15 respondents in the control wage-earning category taught occupation courses, and 16 others reported occupation courses in the school taught by other home economics teachers.

In sum, the respondents in these two sub-populations differ apart from the fact of one having participated in the teacher-led workshops. The similarity that does exist is that there is, within the respondent's school, some movement in the direction of incorporating wage-earning emphases in the home economics program. The experimental wage-earning category is characterized by the majority being in the initial stages, whereas in the control wage-earning category the majority have actually implemented a wage-earning course. The importance of considering these similarities and differences becomes particularly evident when the findings are studied with the intent of seeking increased understanding of factors related to curriculum innovation.

Wage-Earning Emphasis

For greater clarity, the format of each chapter is to present each research question, the variables, measurements of the variables, and the answer to the question derived from the data. Findings pertaining to wage-earning emphases are presented first, since these findings are central to the study and become the basis for creating sub-populations used throughout the entire analysis.

Respondents in the control and experimental groups were asked the same questions in the interview and on the questionnaire. Of central concern to achieving the purpose of the project, was information pertaining to whether or not wage-earning emphases had been incorporated into home economics courses and curricula and if so, how, and when. The interview included fourteen questions directed to eliciting these data. (See Appendix B, pp. 24-26.)

Courses Taught by Respondents

The first question was directed to the courses taught by the respondent. The number indicating that wage-earning emphases had been incorporated is reported in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Number and Percent Teaching Course with Wage-Earning Emphases by Participation Category

Participation Category	No Wage Earning N	Percent	Wage Earning N	Percent	No Response N	Percent	Total N	Percent
Leaders	2	28.6	5	71.5			7	100.1*
Experimental	69	87.3	9	11.4	1	1.3	79	100
Control	57	72.2	22	27.8			79	100
Total	128	77.5	36	21.8	1	.7	165	100

* Due to rounding off error

The differences evident in the experimental and control groups reflect the selection of teachers as workshop participants who were known to have no funded wage-earning emphases. The control group selected by a random sampling technique should, if representative, and did reflect the fact that some teachers in the state are teaching occupational courses. Of teachers in the experimental group, 8 of the 9 reporting inclusion of wage-earning emphases indicate this is done by integrating concepts into existing courses. Direct questioning of the teacher is almost essential for knowing that this approach was being used.

The categories developed for labeling types of wage-earning emphases were:

1. Diversified, i.e., a course which included several different home economics related occupations.
2. Integrated, i.e., where some learning experiences were planned to inform students about the relevancy of course content to wage-earning.
3. Occupation mix; course content drawing from several areas, e.g., home economics and distributive education.
4. Occupational course, one directed to instruction for wage-earning in an occupational cluster, e.g., food preparation and services.
5. Occupational co-op course, i.e., one planned with work stations as well as related classroom instruction.
6. An "other" category where the information provided indicated some emphases on wage-earning which did not coincide with definitions for the preceding categories.

Of the 31 teachers in the control and experimental groups reporting wage-earning emphases, the number by type of emphases is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Types of Wage-Earning Emphases

Type	Experimental	Control	Total
Diversified		1	1
Integrated	8	7	15
Occupation Course		12	12
Occupation Co-op		2	2
"Other"	1		1
Total	9	22	31

Courses Taught by Others

Respondents were then asked whether courses taught by other teachers included wage-earning emphases. Table 4.3 presents the results.

Table 4.3 Number and Percent Reporting Courses with Wage-Earning Emphases Taught by Other Teachers in Home Economics Programs by Participation Category

Participation Category	No Wage Earning N	Percent	Wage Earning N	Percent	No Response N	Percent	Total N	Percent
Leaders	7	100.					7	100
Experimental	63	79.7	9	11.4	7	8.9	79	100
Control	51	64.6	23	29.1	5	6.3	79	100
Total	117	71.3	35	21.3	12	7.3	164	99.9

The types of wage-earning emphases taught by other teachers were as follows:

Table 4.4 Type of Wage-Earning Emphases Taught by Other Teachers

Type	Experimental	Control	Total
Diversified		1	1
Integrated	3	6	9
Occupation Co-op	3	15	18
"Other"	3	1	4
Total	9	23	32

Plans for Courses Taught by Respondents

Teachers were asked whether plans were in process or complete for making changes next year, i.e., to incorporate wage-earning emphases in courses presently taught or to be taught by them. The results are evident in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Number of Respondents Planning Change in Course Taught by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	No Percent	N	Yes Percent	N	No Response Percent	Total N	Total Percent
Experimental	44	55.7	26	32.9	9	11.3	79	99.9
Control	51	64.8	15	18.8	13	16.4	79	99.9
Total	95	60.2	41	25.9	22	13.9	158	100

It should be remembered that teachers in the experimental group were responding to this question at the seventh session of the workshop. Thus, each was just completing an in-service education program with the focus on wage-earning emphases. Note that the number responding Yes in the experimental group is slightly less than twice as large as the number in the control group. A legitimate question is still, "Why did only about 32 percent of the experimental group respond positively?" Whether this results from the specificity of the question (for next year), combined with the fact of the recency of the in-service workshops or whether in fact only 32 percent were motivated to modify curriculum, can only be answered in a follow-up study.

The types of wage-earning emphases being planned are reported in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Type of Wage-Earning Emphases Being Planned

Type	Experimental	Control	Total
Diversified	2		2
Integrated	6	2	8
Occupation Mix	1	1	2
Occupation Course	5	6	11
Occupation Co-op		4	4
Underdetermined	12	2	14
Total	26	15	41

Plans for Courses Taught by Others

When asked whether changes were being planned in courses taught or to be taught by other teachers for next year, the responses were:

Table 4.7 Number of Respondents Reporting Changes Planned for Courses Taught by Other Teachers

	No		Yes		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Experimental	41	51.9	14	17.7	24	30.3	79	99.9
Control	37	46.8	10	12.6	32	40.5	79	99.9
Total	78	49.4	24	15.2	56	35.4	158	100

A sizable proportion of teachers did not respond to this item, which raises certain questions about communication among home economists in the same school. The observable differences between the experimental and control groups are slight.

The types of changes being planned appear in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Type of Wage-Earning Emphases Being Planned by Other Teachers

Type	Experimental	Control	Total
Diversified	3	2	5
Integrated		1	1
Occupation Mix		1	1
Occupation Course	4	3	7
Occupation Co-op		1	1
Undetermined	7	2	9
Total	14	10	24

A total of 44 teachers in the control group and 37 in the experimental group reported wage-earning emphases taught by themselves or other home economists in the same school or that these were being planned.

Course Initiation, Content, Methods, Problems

A series of questions were directed to these respondents to learn specifically how the course(s) had been initiated, the problems encountered, instructional approaches and school-community cooperation relevant to the course. The questions varied in relevancy to each respondent, depending upon the type of wage-earning emphases. Consequently, the frequency of no response varies considerably from item to item. These questions were not developed to provide a basis for comparison. Since this was a pilot study the inclusion of such questions made it possible to pretest the adequacy of wording for use in a follow-up study. Teachers in the experimental group had been selected on the basis of not having occupational courses at the time of the workshops. Within the 3½ months during which the workshop sessions were conducted, it was not expected that program changes would be incorporated to the extent that the questions would have wide-spread applicability to this group.

The tabulation of responses as listed below merit consideration when taken as a total population and when viewed as purely suggestive.

To the question, "How was the (program) change initiated," the responses from the highest to lowest frequency were:

Administrator and Home Economist	18
Home Economist	16
Administration	11
Vocational Dept. Chairman and Home Economist	6
Other	4
Home Economist with State Dept. Personnel	2
State Department Urging	2
Administration, Guidance, and Home Economics	<u>1</u>
	<u>60</u>

When asked how the content of the course was determined, teachers indicated:

Existing Curriculum and Published Materials	14
Information from Students	8
Left up to Teacher and Supervisor	7
Information from Students and Community	3
Information from Community	2
Curriculum Materials and Information from Community	<u>1</u>
Total responding	<u>35</u>

Respondents were asked, "What teaching methods are used for these changes in courses?"

The highest number (12) reported instructional techniques were the same as for non-occupational courses. These techniques extended to include field trips, were described by 12 additional respondents. Five reported use of cooperative work experience and field trips as supplements to visual techniques. Four reported inclusion of a community technician and field trips. The remaining seven reported some combination of these.

Wage-earning emphases were reported to have been planned most frequently during 1967 and early 1968 (28). Eleven reported planning changes in 1966; nine in 1965; two in 1964, and one in the Fall, 1963. As expected there is a gradual increase from the time of passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 to the time data were obtained.

Examining the responses to this question in terms of experimental and control groups, only five of the experimental group responded. Four of the five indicated that changes were planned in the Spring, 1967 (prior to workshops), and one indicated the Fall, 1967 and Spring, 1968.

With the concern for school-community cooperation in vocational preparation, respondents were queried about efforts to inform the community. Out of 51 responding, 16 indicated that there had been no efforts to inform the community about changes; 13 referred to press releases; 3, talks to PTA groups; 3 mentioned curriculum guides solely or in combination with press releases and talks to PTA

groups; 8 mentioned miscellaneous efforts such as talking individually with parents and business persons; 8, PTA talks and press releases.

When asked about efforts to recruit students, 14 of 52 responded that there had been no special effort. Eighteen reported working with guidance personnel; 12 combined working with guidance personnel and talking to classes, the remaining 8 reported various other means in combination with guidance.

Availability of adequate library materials was of interest. Of 59 responding, 32 reported present library resources inadequate; 16 indicated resources were adequate, and 11 responded "don't know" if resources were adequate. Twenty-eight out of 51 responding reported having ordered library materials. When asked if students were encouraged to use library materials in courses with wage-earning emphases, slightly over half of those responding (29 out of 51) responded with a yes; 9 said "no" and 13, don't know. The "don't know" responses were often responses of teachers in schools where another teacher was responsible for courses with wage-earning emphases. When asked to specify the types of efforts, reports and projects were cited.

When asked what kinds of problems were encountered in incorporating wage-earning emphases in the program, approximately 38 percent (16 out of 42) reported indifference on the part of administration; 28 percent (12) cited physical facilities; small numbers referred to boards of education, calibre of students in course and a combination of all those mentioned.

Information sought about the community and school focussed on employment, business and industry, and students. Nineteen out of 50 (38 percent) reported seeking information about both. Fifteen (30 percent) sought employment data; 11 (22 percent) reported having obtained no specific information. Thirty-seven (74 percent) reported that information obtained influenced the curriculum.

Summary

When teachers in the experimental and control groups were asked if any of the courses taught included wage-earning emphases, almost 80 percent responded negatively. Of the twenty percent responding in the affirmative, slightly over 70 percent were in the control group, reflecting the fact that the experimental group had been selected to exclude teachers of occupational courses, whereas the control group had been selected to be as representative as possible of all secondary home economics teachers.

The type of wage-earning emphasis reported with the highest frequency when the control and experimental groups were combined was an integrated approach. Occupation courses in various areas ranked second and were reported exclusively by control group respondents. The predominance of integrating wage-earning emphases in existing courses is quite likely a result of the fact that this is action which a teacher can take independent of added financial support or major curriculum revision involving other teachers and administration.

The validity of the explanation is supported by the fact that when teachers report that plans to incorporate wage-earning emphases are in process, occupation courses are cited most frequently as the type being planned with "as yet undetermined" ranking second. Thus, although limited in effectiveness in preparing salable skills for entry into the labor force, integrating aspects of wage-earning emphases into existing courses may serve to increase awareness of vocational opportunities which require the acquisition of specific skills and information. Considered from the standpoint of program change, this approach may serve as an initial step to creating more options for students seeking preparation for home economics related occupations.

When teachers in the control and experimental groups were asked whether courses taught by other teachers include wage-earning emphases, twenty percent responded in the affirmative. Of the twenty percent, over seventy percent were in the control group.

When asked if plans were in process to incorporate wage-earning emphases in the home economics programs in courses taught by the respondent, approximately one-third of the experimental group responded yes, whereas slightly less than one-fifth of the control group responded affirmatively. The proportion for the control would be expected to be less in view of the fact that 31 respondents were in schools where occupation courses were being offered. Correcting for this, the 15 reporting changes being planned constitute 31 percent of the total of 48 respondents in the control group where wage-earning emphases were not a part of the program, thus approximating the experimental group respondents.

It should be noted that over 10 percent of both the experimental and control groups failed to respond to the question. The number of no responses increased to 35 percent for the combined groups when asked about plans for courses taught by other teachers.

Administrators and home economists were reported most frequently to have initiated program changes to incorporate wage-earning emphases.

Existing curriculum guides and published materials were most frequently reported as the basis for determining the course content.

Methods of teaching wage-earning emphases were reported to be much the same as those used in homemaking classes. Some indicated that field trips and cooperative work experience were added to the usual techniques and methods.

Slightly less than 70 percent cited press releases, talks to PTA's, use of, choice of curriculum guides, or individual conferences with parents and business men as the means used to inform the community about program changes. Approximately 31 percent reported no effort to inform the community.

Recruiting students was done most frequently in cooperation with guidance personnel and talking to classes. In excess of 25 percent reported no special effort had been made to recruit students.

Over one-half reported that library materials were inadequate for wage-earning emphases.

Slightly less than 40 percent (N=42) reported indifference of administrators as one problem encountered in incorporating wage-earning emphases; approximately 30 percent cited physical facilities.

Approximately 70 percent of the respondents (50) reported seeking either information about business and industry in the community or information about students. Over one-third reported seeking information about both. Over seventy percent indicated that this information influenced the curriculum. Chapter V presents findings pertaining to demographic characteristics and wage-earning emphases.

CHAPTER V

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Demographic information included marital status, age, children, education, work experience, socioeconomic origins, and present socioeconomic status. Questions were direct and some were the first asked in the interview. Socioeconomic data were elicited at the end of the questionnaire.

Marital Status

Table 5.1 reports the marital status of respondents by type of participation category.

Table 5.1 Marital Status by Participation Category

	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced		Other		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	1	14.3	5	71.4	1	14.3					7	100
Non-Participants	3	10.7	14	50.0	9	32.1	2	7.1			28	100
Experimental	13	16.5	50	63.3	14	17.7	2	2.5			79	100
Control	27	34.2	40	50.6	4	5.1	3	3.8	5	6.3	79	100
Total	44	22.8	109	56.5	28	14.5	7	3.6	5	2.6	193	100

Fifty percent or more of respondents in all categories were married. The experimental group had a larger proportion of married respondents than did either the control or non-participant. Computing percentages with marital status as the base, sixtyone percent of all single respondents were in the control group, whereas 29.5 percent were in the experimental with approximately 7 percent in the non-participant category. The largest proportion of all widowed respondents (50 percent) were in the experimental group; with the next largest number and percentage (32) in the non-participant category; approximately 14 percent are in the control group. In sum, although a majority of all respondents were married, the control group differs from the experimental and non-participant groups by the larger proportion of single respondents.

A question asked throughout the study was whether respondents in each of the four wage-earning categories differed significantly in demographic characteristics. Table 5.2 presents the information relative to marital status and wage-earning categories.

Table 5.2 Marital Status of Experimental and Control Group Respondents by Wage-Earning Categories

	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced		Other		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>												
Wage Earning	6	16.2	24	64.9	6	16.2	1	2.7			37	100
No Wage Earning	6	14.6	26	63.4	8	19.5	1	2.4			41	100
No Response	1	100									1	100
Total	13	16.5	50	63.3	14	17.7	2	2.5			79	100
<u>Control</u>												
Wage Earning	12	27.3	25	56.8	3	6.8	2	4.5	2	4.5	44	100
No Wage Earning	15	44.1	14	41.2	1	2.9	1	2.9	3	8.8	34	100
No Response			1	100							1	100
Total	27	34.2	40	50.6	4	5.1	3	3.8	5	6.3	79	100

By comparing data in this table with that in Table 5.1, it is evident that the distribution of respondents in the experimental sub-populations closely approximate the distribution for the experimental group. A similar analysis for the control group yields different results. A larger proportion of respondents reporting wage-earning emphases are married, with a smaller proportion than for the total control group being single. In contrast, for those reporting no wage-earning emphasis, the proportion married is less than that for the total control group, whereas the proportion single exceeds that for the total by approximately 10 percent. Since the control group sub-populations reflect greater differences in actual program modification than do the sub-populations in the experimental group, this evidence suggests that married, widowed or divorced teachers may change curriculum more readily than do single teachers.

Age

Age characteristics of all respondents follow the pattern for women in the labor force, with the lowest proportion in the age category 31-40 years. Table 5.3 presents detailed results.

Table 5.3 Age by Participation Category

Participation Category	21-30 yrs		31-40 yrs		41-50 yrs		51 & Over		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders			1	14.3	5	71.4	1	14.3			7	100
Non-Participants	9	32.1	4	14.3	7	25.0	7	25.0	1	3.6	28	100
Experimental	23	29.1	9	11.4	32	40.5	14	17.7	1	1.3	79	100
Control	26	32.9	14	17.7	21	26.6	17	21.5	1	1.3	79	100
Total	58	30.1	28	14.5	65	33.7	39	20.2	3	1.5	193	100

Table 5.4 reports age data in relation to wage-earning categories.

	21-30 yrs		31-40 yrs		41-50 yrs		51 & Over		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>												
Wage Earning	13	35.1	3	8.1	15	40.5	6	16.2			37	100
No Wage Earning	9	21.9	6	14.6	17	41.5	8	19.5	1	2.4	41	100
No Response	1	100									1	100
Total	23	29.1	9	11.4	32	40.5	14	17.7	1	1.3	79	100
<u>Control</u>												
Wage Earning	14	31.9	8	18.1	11	25.0	11	25.0			44	100
No Wage Earning	12	35.3	6	17.6	10	29.4	5	14.7	1	2.9	34	99.9
No Response							1	100			1	100
Total	26	32.9	14	17.7	21	26.6	17	21.5	1	1.3	79	100

An examination of results for the experimental sub-populations discloses that for respondents 31 and over, proportions in each sub-population vary only slightly from the proportion for the total. The variation is greater for those respondents 21-30 years of age and is in the direction of a slightly larger proportion incorporating wage-earning emphases. This contrasts with the slight variations of proportions between sub-populations from those for all of the control group. Thus, the question is raised as to whether younger persons are more likely to apply information acquired through workshops than older teachers.

Children

Approximately 47 percent of the experimental and control groups reported having no children. This includes both single and married respondents. Table 5.6 reports the number of children.

Table 5.5 Number of Children by Participation Category

	1 child		2 children		3 children		4 and over		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	1	16.6	4	66.7	1	16.6			6	99.9
Non-Participants	2	12.5	8	50.	5	31.2	1	6.0	16	99.7
Experimental	7	16.6	16	38.	11	26.1	8	19.	42	99.7
Control	9	22.5	17	42.5	10	25.0	4	10.	40	100.
Total	19	18.2	45	43.2	27	25.9	13	12.5	104	99.8

Median number of children for the total sample was 2. Of those having children, a slightly larger proportion of the experimental group (45 percent) reported having 3 or more children than did the control group (35 percent).

Table 5.6 presents results for the wage-earning categories. Variations between sub-populations are comparatively slight and distributions tend to parallel those for the total experimental group and total control group.

Table 5.6 Number of Children of Experimental and Control Group Respondents by Wage-Earning Category

	None		1-2		3-4		Over 4		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>												
Wage Earning	15	40.5	8	21.6	7	18.9	2	5.4	5	13.5	37	100
No Wage Earning	13	31.7	15	36.6	8	19.5	2	4.9	3	7.3	41	100
No Response									1	100	1	100
Total	28	35.4	23	29.2	15	19.0	4	5.1	9	11.4	79	100
<u>Control</u>												
Wage Earning	13	29.5	16	36.3	8	18.2			7	15.9	44	99.9
No Wage Earning	12	35.3	9	26.4	5	14.7	1	2.9	7	20.6	34	99.9
No Response			1	100							1	100
Total	25	31.6	26	32.9	13	16.5	1	1.3	14	17.7	79	100

Of all respondents only four reported having children, all of whom were preschoolers; 13 reported children's ages to be 6-12; 32, 13 years and over. The remaining reported children in more than one of these age categories: only slight variations between the experimental and control groups occurred and were probably due to chance.

Education

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they had earned Bachelors and Masters degrees, the years in which these were earned, and the institution granting the degree. A number of the experimental group did not indicate the institution granting the degree. The placement of the question was such that it may not have been noticed. Spacing of the question should be changed. Table 5.7 presents results on highest degrees earned.

Table 5.7 Highest Degree Earned by Participation Category

	None		B.S.		M.A.		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders			3	42.8	4	57.1			7	99.9
Non-Participants	1	3.6	24	85.7	3	10.7			28	100.
Experimental			65	82.3	11	14.0	3	3.8	79	100.
Control	2	2.5	56	70.9	20	25.3	1	1.3	79	100.
Total	3	1.6	148	76.7	38	19.7	4	2.1	193	100.

Respondents in the experimental group and non-participants exhibited very slight variations in the proportions earning Bachelors and Masters degrees. Slightly over 80 percent held Bachelors degrees, with 14 and 10 percent respectively having Masters.

The control contrasted with the experimental group in that 25 percent had earned Masters degrees.

Data were analyzed to ascertain whether or not persons holding Masters degrees were disproportionately represented in the wage-earning sub-populations. Table 5.8 reports the results.

Table 5.8 M.A. Degree by Wage-Earning Category

	No		Yes		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	31	83.8	6	16.2			37	100.0
No Wage Earning	34	85.0	5	12.5	1	2.5	40	100.0
No Response	1	100					1	100
Total	66	84.6	11	14.1	1	1.3	78	100.0
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	33	75.0	11	25.0			44	100.
No Wage Earning	24	72.7	9	27.3			33	100.
No Response	1	100					1	100
Total	58	74.4	20	25.6			78	100.

It is evident that there is no relationship between having an advanced degree and incorporating wage-earning emphases. Proportional variations for each sub-population are very slight, and in each case distributions parallel those for the total experimental and total control groups.

In examining data pertaining to years in which Bachelors degrees were granted, observable differences between the experimental and control groups reflect the variation in age composition reported earlier.

Table 5.9 Years in Which Bachelors Degrees Earned by Participation Category

	1940 & Before		1941-1950		1951-1960		1961-1967		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	1	14.3	5	71.4	1	14.3					7	100.
Non-Participants	4	14.3	7	25.0	4	14.3	8	28.5	5	17.8	28	99.9
Experimental	16	20.2	32	40.5	7	8.8	18	22.7	6	7.5	79	99.5
Control	20	25.3	12	15.2	14	17.7	32	40.5	1	1.2	79	99.9
Total	41	21.2	56	29.0	26	13.5	58	30.0	12	6.2	193	100.0

The largest proportion of those in the experimental group reported having earned the degrees between 1941-1950 (40.5 percent), whereas only 15.2 percent of the control earned degrees in the same decade. Similarly, only 22.7 percent of the experimental group reported receiving the degree in 1961-67 in contrast to 40.5 percent of the control group. Other slight variations are reported in Table 5.9.

When the year in which the Bachelors degree is earned is examined in relation to wage-earning emphases, variations have no specific pattern, as is evident from Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Years in Which Bachelors Degrees Earned by Wage-Earning Emphases

	1940 & Before		1941-1950		1951-1960		1961-1967		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>												
Wage Earning	5	13.5	17	45.9	2	5.4	11	29.7	2	5.4	17	99.9
No Wage Earning	10	24.3	15	36.5	5	12.1	7	17.	4	9.7	41	99.6
No Response	1										1	100
Total	16	20.2	32	40.5	7	8.8	18	22.7	6	7.5	79	99.7
<u>Control</u>												
Wage Earning	11	25.	7	15.9	10	22.7	16	36.3			44	99.9
No Wage Earning	9	26.4	5	14.7	4	11.7	16	47.0			34	99.8
No Response	1										1	100
Total	21	26.5	12	15.1	14	17.7	32	40.5			79	99.8

Socioeconomic Status

Occupational data were used as the basis for categorizing respondents in socioeconomic strata. Socioeconomic origins were determined by father's occupation and education. On the basis of occupation, the statuses of respondents were comparable since all were home economic teachers. For married respondents, however, a salient factor in status is the occupation of the husband. Thus, datum on this variable was obtained also. Each occupation was assigned a socioeconomic index based on the work of Duncan⁷.

⁷Otis Dudley Duncan, "A Socioeconomic Index for All Occupations" and "Properties and Characteristics of the Socioeconomic Index" (Chapters VI and VII) in Occupations and Social Status, Albert J. Reiss, Jr., The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc., 1961.

Educational data for the father were used as supplementary information to facilitate accurate interpretation of information about occupations.

A socioeconomic ratio was devised for describing relationships between occupational status of husbands and married respondents. Categories developed were: status consistent; status inconsistent, husband higher; status inconsistent, wife higher. The socioeconomic index for public school teachers is 72. Thus, all respondents would be so categorized. If the husband's occupation had a socioeconomic index within 10 points, either higher, i.e., up to 82; lower, i.e., no lower than 62, the status consistent category was used. If the index exceeded these intervals, one of the other two categories would apply contingent on which spouse had the higher socioeconomic index. The rationale for setting these boundaries is based on Duncan's statement that differences have some significance only between deciles, not within. Thus, in terms of differences in values and attitudes having specific implications for marital relationships, the greater the range, the greater the likelihood that if inconsistencies did exist, those so categorized would be more apt to be indicative of significant differences between spouses.

This variable was thought to have potential relevance for professional involvement. Specifically, in a marital relationship where the husband's status is lower than the wife's, professional involvement might be perceived by one or both as creating social-psychological distance within the relationship or in other terms, to move towards accentuating differences between spouses which might threaten marital integration. Status inconsistency between spouses where the husband's status is higher, theoretically has potentially less restrictive effect on the wife's involvement for this type of status inconsistency, is supported by social expectation and approval and is in fact more apt to be the norm on the basis of frequency.

The Socioeconomic Index developed by Duncan ranges from 0 to 100. The approximate range for commonly used occupational categories are as follows:

Range SEI	Occupational Category	Illustrative Occupations
100-76	Professionals	Chemists, lawyers, physicians, etc.
75-60	Proprietors, managerial and other professionals	Managers, dealers, public school teachers, social welfare workers, etc.
59-44	Sales, clerical, other white collar	Bookkeepers, salesmen, mail carriers, etc.
43-28	Skilled craftsmen	Electricians, machinist, plumber
27-0	Semi-skilled and unskilled	carpenter, operatives, cooks, waiters, etc.

Socioeconomic origins of respondents as indicated by father's occupation, are specified in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Socioeconomic Origins of Respondents in Participation Categories Based on Father's Occupation

Socioeconomic Category	SEI Range	1950* Distribution		Leaders		Non-Participants		Experimental		Control	
		Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N
I	(100-76)	5.4	4	57.1	6	21.3	10	12.7	17	21.5	
II	(75-60)	8.6			6	21.3	12	15.2	15	19.0	
III	(59-44)	11.2			5	17.8	23	29.0	14	17.7	
IV	(43-28)	18.7	1	14.3	2	7.1	15	19.0	17	21.5	
V	(27-0)	56.1	2	28.6	8	28.5	14	17.8	15	19.0	
No data					1	3.6	5	6.3	1	1.3	
Total		100.	7	100.0	28	99.6**	79	100.0	79	100.0	

* Approximate proportional distribution of Socioeconomic Index for the male experienced civilian labor force in 1950. Percents derived from Table VII-3, Duncan, in Reiss, p. 147.

** less than 100 due to rounding off error

It is evident from the table that home economists in all categories are disproportionately drawn from the three highest socioeconomic categories. Over 55 percent are drawn from these three strata, as contrast to the fact that in 1950 approximately one-quarter of the experienced male labor force were in occupations in these categories. This finding is consistent with the fact that all respondents had some college, and the large majority were college graduates. The selective factors which affect the number of women who enter college and who graduate, have been linked to socioeconomic origins in a number of studies, showing that persons of higher socioeconomic strata are disproportionately represented in colleges and among college graduates.

These data indicate also that the experimental group does not differ greatly from the control group. Approximately the same proportion of the experimental group (36.8 percent) as of the control group (40.5 percent) are from the two lower strata. A slightly larger proportion of the control group are drawn from the two higher strata (40.5 percent) as contrast to 27.9 percent of the experimental group. It is interesting to note that the leaders are quite disproportionately drawn from the highest stratum with

57.1 percent. The distribution of non-participants most closely approximates that of the control group with the exception of the fact that a larger proportion of non-participants were from the lowest strata.

Present socioeconomic status of respondents as determined by their occupation, i.e., public school teaching (SEI 72) would be in the second highest stratum. The status of married respondents is directly influenced by the socioeconomic status of the husband also. Thus, husband's occupation was used as a basis for assessing status characteristics of respondents and variation between categories.

Table 5.12 Socioeconomic Status of Married Respondents in Participation Categories Based on Husbands' Occupations

Socioeconomic Category	SEI Range	1950* Distribution Percent	Participation Category							
			Leaders		Non-Participants		Experimental		Control	
			N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
I	(100-76)	5.4	1	16.7	8	33.3	20	36.5	23	46
II	(75-60)	8.6	3	50.	12	50.	23	31.7	13	26
III	(59-44)	11.2			3	12.5	13	20.6	9	18
IV	(43-28)	18.7	2	33.3	1	4.2	2	3.2	4	8
V	(27-0)	56.1					5	7.9	1	2
No data										
Total			6	100.0	24	100.0	63	99.9	50	100

Median socioeconomic index of fathers' and husbands' occupations were as reported below in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Median Socioeconomic Indexes of Occupations by Participation Category

SEI of Occupations	Leaders		Non-Participants		Experimental		Control	
	N	Median	N	Median	N	Median	N	Median
Father's Occupation	7	78	27	51.5	74	50	78	49.5
Husband's Occupation	6	67	24	71.5	63	68	50	71.5

*Approximate proportional distribution of Socioeconomic Index for the male experienced civilian labor force in 1950. Percents derived from Table VII-3, Duncan, in Reiss, p. 147.

As reported earlier, leaders tend more frequently to come from families of higher socioeconomic status and reflect some downward mobility in terms of marrying men with somewhat lower socioeconomic status. Variations between respondents in other categories are slight, and in each case reflect upward mobility on the basis of husband's occupation.

Socioeconomic Mobility and Status Consistency

Socioeconomic data were examined in two other ways:

1. Socioeconomic mobility.
2. Consistency of status between married respondent and her husband.

Three categories were devised pertaining to mobility; namely, upwardly mobile; status maintained; downwardly mobile. For this analysis, the respondent's occupation was used as the base line. In this case it was 72, since all were teachers. Duncan stated that actual differences in socioeconomic status for persons in occupations within the same decile of the socioeconomic index were less certain than where occupations were a decile apart. In light of this, the decision was made to have a wider margin prior to categorizing a respondent as mobile in either direction.

Upwardly mobile was defined as originating from a family in which the father was engaged in an occupation indexed as 62 or less.

Status maintained was defined as originating from a family in which the father was engaged in an occupation indexed between 63 and 82.

Downwardly mobile was defined as originating from a family in which the father was engaged in an occupation indexed between 83 and 100.

Table 5.14 presents the results.

Table 5.14 Number and Percent of Respondents in Participation Categories by Categories of Socioeconomic Mobility

Socioeconomic Mobility			Participation Category					
	N	Percent	Non-Participants		Experimental		Control	
			N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent*
Upwardly Mobile	3	42.8	18	66.7	56	75.7	51	65.3
Status Maintained	2	28.6	4	14.8	12	16.2	19	24.4
Downwardly Mobile	2	28.6	5	18.5	6	8.1	8	10.3
Total	7	100.0	27	100.0	74	100.0	78	100.0

* $\chi^2 = 2.14$ 2 df n. sig.

A majority of non-participants, experimental and control group respondents are upwardly mobile when viewed intergenerationally. The small number of cases precluded using a chi-square test with any categories other than the experimental and control groups. Observable differences between these two categories are slight and do not attain statistical significance at the .05 probability level.

In analyzing data in terms of status consistency, all categories were termed Socioeconomic Ratio, and each was defined as follows:

Status consistent -- socioeconomic index of husband's occupation is between 63 and 82.

Status inconsistent, husband higher -- index of husband's occupation exceeds 82.

Status inconsistent, wife higher -- index of husband's occupation is less than 62.

Table 5.15 Socioeconomic Ratio by Participation Category

	Consistent		Inconsistent				Total	
	N	Percent	Husband Higher N	Percent	Wife Higher N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	4	66.6			2	33.3	6	99.9
Non-Participants	14	60.8	3	13.0	6	26.1	23	99.9
Experimental	31	49.2	14	22.2	18	28.5	63	99.9
Control	23	46.0	13	26.0	14	28.0	50	100.0
Total	72	50.7	30	21.1	40	28.1	142	99.9

For all categories the majority report status consistency between husband and wife. Differences between the experimental and control group respondents are slight. In excess of one-quarter of all categories, report the wife's occupation as being of higher status.

Socioeconomic Status and Wage Earning

Of primary interest was whether or not socioeconomic status was related to the reporting of wage-earning emphases.

Table 5.16 Median Socioeconomic Indexes of Occupations by Wage-Earning Categories of Experimental and Control Groups

	Father's SEI		Husband's SEI	
	N	Median	N	Median
<u>Experimental</u>				
Wage Earning	33	51	29	71.5
No Wage Earning	40	47	34	67.
<u>Control</u>				
Wage Earning	44	46	31	72.
No Wage Earning	33	56	18	72.

An examination of median socioeconomic indexes of father's and husband's occupations by wage-earning categories indicated relatively small variation with no direction evident.

Results of further analysis of socioeconomic status of family of origin are reported in Tables 5.17 and 5.18.

Table 5.17 Number and Percent of Experimental Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Categories by Socioeconomic Status of Origin

Socioeconomic Status Father's Occupation		Experimental			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
I	SEI Range (100-76)	5	13.5	5	12.1
II	(75-60)	7	18.9	4	9.8
III	(59-44)	10	27.0	13	31.7
IV	(43-28)	8	21.6	7	17.1
V	(27-0)	3	8.1	11	26.8
No data		4	10.8	1	2.4
Total		37	99.9	41	99.9

Table 5.18 Number and Percent of Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Categories by Socioeconomic Status of Origin

Socioeconomic Status		Control			
Father's Occupation		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
I	SEI Range (100-76)	7	15.9	9	26.5
II	(75-60)	8	18.1	7	20.6
III	(59-44)	9	20.5	5	14.7
IV	(43-28)	9	20.5	8	23.5
V	(27.0)	11	25.0	4	11.8
No data				1	2.9
Total		44	100.0	34	100.0

Chi-square computed between combined categories I and II and combined categories IV and V in the experimental group is 1.80 with one degree of freedom and was not significant.

Chi-square computed between combined categories I and II and combined categories IV and V in the control group equals 1.26 with one degree of freedom and was not significant.

Comparing the two wage-earning categories within the experimental group, it is interesting to note that both have approximately the same proportion in category III. A larger proportion reporting wage-earning emphases are in categories I and II than are those reporting no wage earning. Similarly, 43.9 percent of the latter are categorized in IV and V as compared to 29.7 percent of those reporting wage-earning emphases. Just the reverse is true for the control group, where 45.5 percent of those reporting wage earning are in categories IV and V as compared to 35.3 percent of those reporting no wage-earning emphases; in turn 47.1 percent of this latter category are in I and II as compared with 34 percent of those reporting wage-earning emphases.

Tables 5.19 and 5.20 report results of similar analysis, using occupations of husbands as indicator of present status.

Table 5.19 Number and Percent of Experimental Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Categories by Socioeconomic Index of Husband's Occupation

Socioeconomic Index		Experimental		No Wage Earning	
Husband's Occupation	SEI Range	N	Percent	N	Percent
I	(100-76)	9	31.0	11	32.4
II	(75-60)	12	41.3	11	32.4
III	(59-44)	5	17.3	8	23.5
IV	(43-28)	1	3.5	1	2.9
V	(27-0)	2	6.9	3	8.7
Total		29	100.0	34	99.9

Table 5.20 Number and Percent of Control Group in Wage-Earning Categories by Socioeconomic Index of Husband's Occupation

Socioeconomic Index		Control		No Wage Earning	
Husband's Occupation	SEI Range	N	Percent	N	Percent
I	(100-76)	15	48.4	8	44.4
II	(75-60)	6	19.3	6	33.3
III	(59-44)	6	19.3	3	16.7
IV	(43-28)	3	9.7	1	5.6
V	(27-0)	1	3.2		
Total		31	99.9	18	100.0

A sizable majority of all wage-earning categories in both experimental and the control groups are in strata I and LL. Variations are relatively small and with the limited number of cases are probably chance occurrences.

Socioeconomic Mobility and Wage Earning

Socioeconomic data were used to categorize experimental and control group respondents in terms of socioeconomic mobility. These categories were defined as specified earlier.

Table 5.21 Number and Percent of Respondents in Experimental and Control Group Wage-Earning Categories by Socioeconomic Mobility (Father's Occupation)

	Upwardly Mobile		Status Maintained		Downwardly Mobile		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	19	57.5	12	36.6	2	6.1	33	99.6
No Wage Earning	32	80.0	4	10.0	4	10.0	40	100.
Total	51	69.9	16	21.9	6	8.2	73	100.
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	31	70.5	9	20.5	4	9.9	44	99.9
No Wage Earning	20	60.6	9	27.2	4	12.1	33	99.9
Total	51	66.3	18	23.3	8	10.4	77	100.

An examination of the data indicates that the findings for the experimental and control groups are at variance for the upwardly mobile and status maintained categories. In the experimental group, the largest proportion of those upwardly mobile report no wage earning, whereas the reverse is true for the control group, although the difference is smaller. With reference to those who have maintained status, the largest proportion in the experimental group report wage-earning emphases, whereas the larger proportion of those in the category in the control group report no wage-earning emphases. For those who are downwardly mobile, the largest proportion of each wage-earning category report no wage-earning emphases.

Fifteen of the control group respondents can justifiably be classified as innovators, in that each were teaching a home economics related occupations course at the time they were interviewed. Thus, this group constitutes a population in which hypotheses pertaining to relationships between selected variables and curriculum change can be more rigorously tested. The fact that these innovators appeared in a random sample of home economics teachers, strengthens the position that the population is to a degree representative of other innovators in the state. The group (15) numerically constitutes roughly one-third of the teachers teaching home economics relation occupational courses (48) at the time of the study.

Table 5.22 Innovators by Socioeconomic Mobility as Compared to All Respondents

Socioeconomic Mobility Category	Innovators		All Respondents	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Upwardly Mobile	11	73.3	128	67.0
Status Maintained	3	20.0	37	19.4
Downwardly Mobile	1	6.9	26	13.6
Total	15	100.0	191	100.0

The distribution of innovators closely approximates that for all respondents. The variations that do occur are relatively small, with the direction of difference suggestive that innovation is related to maintaining status or to being upwardly mobility.

Status Consistency and Wage Earning

Table 5.23 reports the results of examining socioeconomic consistency between husband wife in relation to wage-earning categories. Variations are slight and follow no consistent direction.

Table 5.23 Socioeconomic Ratio by Wage-Earning Emphases

	Consistent		Husband Higher		Wife Higher		N	Percent
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent		
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	16	55.1	5	17.2	8	27.5	29	99.8
No Wage Earning	15	44.1	9	26.4	10	29.4	34	99.9
Total	31	49.2	14	22.2	18	28.5	63	99.9
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	13	41.9	8	25.8	10	32.2	31	99.9
No Wage Earning	9	50	5	27.7	4	22.2	18	99.9
Total	22	45	13	26.3	14	28.5	49	99.8

Data for innovators (as described on page 65) were analyzed separately to ascertain the extent of the consistency of status between husband and wife.

Table 5.24 Socioeconomic Ratio of Innovators as Compared to All Respondents

Socioeconomic Ratio Category	Innovators		All Respondents	
	N	Percent	N	Percent*
Status Consistent	4	30.8	72	50.7
Husband Higher	3	23.0	30	21.1
Wife Higher	6	46.1	40	28.1
Total**	13	99.9	142	99.9

*Of total responding

**Two innovators were single

Fifty-one of all respondents single

The distribution of innovators differs from that of all respondents, in that a considerably larger proportion report status inconsistency with the wife having higher status than the husband. Of further import is the fact that of the six, five are upwardly mobile. This raises the question as to whether persons from lower socioeconomic origins accord higher value to preparation for work, and as home economics teachers are more receptive to playing an active role in incorporating wage-earning emphases in home economics programs. The limited number of cases precludes this finding from being other than purely suggestive.

Education of Marital Pair

Data pertaining to husband's education were examined in relationship to education of the wife and labeled Education Ratio. Three categories were used and defined as follows:

Consistent: Husband's educational achievement was the same as wife.

Husband Higher: Husband had completed one or more levels of education higher than the wife; e.g., wife a college graduate, husband a Master's degree.

Wife Higher: Wife had completed one or more levels of education higher than the husband; e.g., wife graduated from college, husband a high school graduate or some college but did not graduate.

Table 5.25 Education Ratio by Participation Category

	Consistent		Husband Higher		Wife Higher		Total	
	N	Percent*	N	Percent*	N	Percent*	N	Percent
Leaders	1	16.6	1	16.6	4	66.6	6	99.8**
Non-Participants	11	45.8	5	20.8	8	33.3	24	99.9
Experimental	28	44.4	12	19.0	23	36.5	63	99.9
Control	24	47.0	7	13.7	20	39.2	51	99.9
Total	64	44.4	25	17.4	55	38.1	144	99.9

*Percent computed on N responding

**Less than 100 percent due to rounding off error

As evident from Table 5.25, over 40 percent of non-participants and experimental and control group respondents reported educational achievement as the same for both husband and wife. One-third and over reported that the wife had more education than the husband. The lowest proportion (ranging from 20 to 13 percent) reported that the husband had completed more education than the wife. Variations between these three, i.e., non-participants, experimental and control groups were slight.

When examined in relation to wage-earning categories, slight variations occurred between the experimental group categories. (See Table 5.26.)

Table 5.26 Education Ratio by Wage-Earning Category

	Consistent		Husband Higher		Wife Higher		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	14	46.6	5	16.7	11	36.7	30	100.
No Wage Earning	14	42.4	7	21.2	12	36.4	33	100.
Total	28	44.4	12	19.1	23	36.5	63	100.
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	13	41.9	4	12.9	14	45.1	31	99.9
No Wage Earning	10	52.5	3	15.7	6	31.5	19	99.7
Total	23	46.0	7	14.0	20	40.0	50	100.0

Although differences were small in control group categories, the variations suggested a positive relationship between reporting that the wife had completed a higher level of education than the husband and reporting wage-earning emphases. Though too small to attain statistical significance, this direction corroborates that noted for innovators (p. 67) where reporting wife's socioeconomic status higher than the husband's, appears to be positively related to reporting wage-earning emphases. Since education was one component of the socioeconomic index, this consistency is to be expected.

Employment Patterns

Almost 40 percent of respondents in the experimental and control groups had been teaching for more than ten years. The age variation in these two groups reported earlier (the control group having a larger proportion of younger respondents), may be a factor reflected in the datum of 36.8 percent of the experimental group having taught 1-5 years, whereas 50 percent of the control group is in this category. (See Table 5.27.)

Table 5.27 Years Teaching by Participation Category

	1-2 yrs.		3-5 yrs.		6-10 yrs.		Over 10 yrs.		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders					2	28.6	5	71.4	7	100
Non-Participants	5	17.9	10	35.7	6	21.4	7	25.	28	100
Experimental	13	16.5	16	20.3	19	24.1	31	39.2	79	100
Control	17	21.5	23	29.1	8	10.1	31	39.2	79	100
Total	35	18.1	49	25.4	35	18.1	74	38.3	193	99.9

When years of teaching experience are examined in relation to wage-earning emphases, although differences are slight in both the control and experimental groups, the proportion of teachers reporting wage-earning emphases who have over ten years experience, exceeds that for the total control group. The direction is reversed for the experimental group. Table 5.28 presents results in detail.

Table 5.28 Years Teaching Experience by Wage-Earning Category

	1-2 yrs.		3-5 yrs.		6-10 yrs.		Over 10 yrs.		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>										
Wage Earning	7	18.9	8	21.6	8	21.6	14	37.8	37	100
No Wage Earning	6	14.6	7	17.1	11	26.8	17	41.4	41	99.9
No Response									1	100
Total	13	16.5	16	20.3	19	24.1	31	39.3	79	100.2
<u>Control</u>										
Wage Earning	6	13.6	14	31.8	5	11.4	19	43.2	44	100
No Wage Earning	11	32.4	9	26.5	3	8.7	11	32.4	34	100
No Response									1	100
Total	17	21.5	23	29.1	8	10.1	30	39.2	79	99.9

Table 5.29 reports the proportions by participation categories and the number of years in present position. Variation in age composition of the experimental and control groups is reflected in the slightly larger proportion of the experimental group being in present position over 10 years, and the larger proportion of control group in the 1-2 year category.

Table 5.29 Years in Present Position by Participation Category

	1-2 yrs.		3-5 yrs.		6-10 yrs.		Over 10 yrs.		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders			1	14.3	2	28.6	4	57.1	7	100
Non-Participants	10	35.8	9	32.1	6	21.4	3	10.7	28	100
Experimental	24	30.4	23	29.2	11	13.9	21	26.5	79	100
Control	29	37.7	22	28.6	11	14.3	15	19.5	77	100
Total	63	33.0	55	28.8	30	15.7	43	22.5	191	100

When length of time in present position is analyzed in relation to wage-earning emphases, Table 5.30, observable differences suggest that teachers in their present positions for 1 to 2 years may be less apt to have wage-earning emphasis than those holding positions for either 3-5 or 6-10 years. (Note control group in Table 5.30.) Results for the experimental group show those in position for over 10 years to be in the wage-earning category slightly more frequently.

Table 5.30 Years in Present Position by Wage-Earning Category

	1-2 yrs.		3-5 yrs.		6-10 yrs.		Over 10 yrs.		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>										
Wage Earning	10	27.0	11	29.7	4	10.8	12	32.4	37	99.9
No Wage Earning	14	34.2	11	26.8	7	17.1	9	21.9	41	100
No Response			1						1	100
Total	24	30.4	23	29.2	11	13.9	21	26.5	79	100
<u>Control</u>										
Wage Earning	12	27.3	16	36.3	8	18.2	8	18.2	44	100
No Wage Earning	19	55.8	6	17.6	3	8.8	6	17.6	34	99.8
No Response							1	100	1	100
Total	31	39.2	22	27.9	11	13.8	15	19.1	79	100

Since employment patterns differ for women, respondents were asked whether they had taught continuously or whether their work had been interrupted. Where the respondent reported a work pattern which had been interrupted, she was asked to indicate the number and length of interruptions. These data were analyzed in relation to marital status, since married women with children would be expected more frequently to report interruptions than single respondents. All thirteen single women in the experimental group reported continuous employment; 22 (85 percent) of the 26 single women responding in the control group reported continuous employment. Of 109 married respondents, 50 (45.8 percent) reported having worked continuously; 59 (54.2 percent) reported having interrupted their teaching. The experimental and control group respondents differed with 48 percent of the experimental group reporting continuous employment as contrast to 40 percent of the control group. Approximately three-quarters of widowed respondents reported having had employment interrupted. The pattern was similar for non-participants, experimental and control groups, with slight variations in proportions.

Seventy-five out of 88 (85 percent) indicated the frequency with which employment had been interrupted. The majority (59, i.e., 69 percent) reported one interruption, 19 (25 percent) two interruptions, with 4 reporting over three interruptions. Approximately twice as many (33 percent) of the experimental group reported two interruptions when compared with the control group (17 percent). The median number of years of interruptions was 5; mean number 7 years. Forty percent reported the length of interruptions to be 1-3 years, whereas approximately one-third reported the length of interruptions as 10 or more years. An interruption of 4-6 years was reported by 17.6 percent. Variations between the experimental and control groups were slight. The small number (10) of non-participants made analysis of these data for this group of little value.

Examination of data on the number and length of interruptions in relation to having wage-earning emphases, found minimal variation between categories with no consistent pattern.

The addition of effective instruction in wage-earning emphasis to home economics programs has many ramifications, one of which is linked to the experiential backgrounds of teachers. Teachers with experience in occupations other than teaching may differ in their receptivity to wage-earning emphases, on the basis of feelings of greater or less competency to provide instruction, and on the value given to such emphases. A further ramification, apart from the individual teacher's perception, is the diversity of occupational experience which home economists have and which in turn may contribute to developing courses in home economics related occupations. From the standpoint of a department chairman or high school principal, this consideration might be posed as, "What is the probability that a home economics teacher has had work experience other than teaching?" and "Has experience been gained in some particular occupation more frequently than others?" Questions were asked to obtain information relevant to these concerns. Each was asked whether she had worked in business or community agencies after graduation from college and if yes, the type of work and the length of time.

Table 5.31 presents the results. As reported, of those responding almost half had not worked in occupations other than teaching. Observable differences between the experimental and control groups were slight. The types of work reported in order of highest frequency were: food preparation and service, (30); occupations not related to home economics, (28); miscellaneous types of work tangentially related to home economics, (13); clothing-textile occupations, (11); more than one of the above areas, (6); child-care occupations, (4); cooperative extension, (3); hotel-motel occupations, (1).

Of the 89 indicating the length of time having worked in business, approximately 53 percent reported working less than 3 years; 30 percent, between 3 and 6 years, and 17 percent, 7 or more years. Observable differences between the experimental and control groups were very slight, never exceeding a frequency of four cases.

Table 5.31 Worked in Business or Community Agencies by Participation Category

	No		Yes		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	3	42.9	4	57.1			7	100
Non-Participants	16	57.14	11	39.27	1	3.57	28	100
Experimental	38	48.10	41	51.89			79	100
Control	36	45.57	40	50.63	3	3.80	79	100
Total	93	48.2	96	49.8	4	2.0	193	100

An examination of responses in relation to wage-earning categories indicates slight variations for both the experimental and control groups as evident from Table 5.32.

Table 5.32 Worked in Business by Wage-Earning Category

	No		Yes		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	19	51.3	18	48.7			37	100
No Wage Earning	19	46.4	22	53.6			41	100
No Response			1	100			1	100
Total	38	48.2	41	51.8			79	100
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	24	54.5	20	45.5			44	100
No Wage Earning	15	44.1	19	55.9			34	100
No Response			1	100			1	100
Total	39	49.4	40	50.6			79	100

The direction shows a slight positive relationship between having worked in business and reporting no wage-earning emphases for both the experimental and control groups.

When asked which work they enjoyed the most, teaching or other types of employment, the overwhelming majority responded teaching, i.e., 99 percent of the experimental group; 95 percent of the control group, and 93 percent of the non-participants. Of the 109 indicating the single most important reason for preferring teaching, approximately 60 percent cited that they liked working with students; approximately 24 percent indicated that they found self-fulfillment through teaching; i.e., that it was satisfying and so forth. The remaining 16 percent cited a variety of reasons including, time consistent with demands of family obligations, lack of problems associated with teaching and financial security.

An examination of reasons for preferring teaching in relation to wage-earning emphases found very slight differences. The no response rate was high for all categories, 38 percent for the experimental group; 46 percent for the control group. Liking students was the reason most frequently cited by teachers with wage-earning emphases as well as teachers without wage-earning emphases.

Summary and Conclusions

Two questions were of primary concern in obtaining demographic data:

1. Were the characteristics of the experimental group significantly different from the control group?
2. Were the demographic characteristics of teachers reporting some wage-earning emphasis significantly different from those who did not?

With reference to the similarity and dissimilarity of the control group and the experimental group, it was found that:

A larger proportion of the experimental group were older married or widowed teachers who earned the undergraduate degree prior to 1950. Approximately 15 percent had a Master's degree. The control group had slightly more than twice the number of single respondents as compared to the experimental group; as a whole the group had a median age five years younger than the experimental group. A larger proportion had earned the undergraduate degree between 1961-67 and 25 percent had Master's degrees.

The difference in age composition is reflected in the proportions having taught less than or more than 10 years. Approximately forty percent in both groups have taught more than 10 years. However, half of the control group have taught from 1 to 5 years, as contrast to one-third of the experimental group. In turn, a larger proportion (26.5 percent) of the experimental group have been in the present position over 10 years as contrast to 19.5 percent of the control group. The largest proportions (30.4 and 37.7 respectively) for both groups have been in the present position for 1 to 2 years.

A larger proportion (45 percent) of the experimental group reported having three or more children than in the control group (35 percent). Median number of children for all respondents was 2.

Socioeconomic origins of the two groups were found to be essentially the same. Present socioeconomic status based on husbands' occupations of married respondents were very similar also. The slight variation which did occur was in the direction of control group respondents being of higher socioeconomic status. A sizable proportion of both groups were upwardly mobile. Approximately the same proportion of married respondents in both groups reported that the spouses educational achievement was equal to hers (44 percent and 47 percent) or less than hers (36 percent and 39 percent).

Data on employment patterns specifically with reference to continuous as contrast to interrupted employment, indicated that there were only small variations between the two groups. Less than half of married respondents in both groups (48 percent and 40 percent) reported having worked continuously. Close to 70 percent of those having interrupted employment reported one interruption of an average of 7 years and a median of 5 years. A larger proportion of respondents in the experimental group (33 percent) reported two interruptions than in the control group (17 percent). This may be a function of the variance in age composition of the two groups. About half of each group reported having worked in business or community agencies after graduation, most frequently for less than three years. An overwhelming majority of both groups expressed a preference for teaching.

With reference to relationships between demographic characteristics and incorporating wage-earning emphases, no statistically significant differences, i.e., .05 level were found. Direction of variations suggested that positive relationships may exist between incorporating wage-earning emphases and the following characteristics of the teacher: being married, maintaining socioeconomic status (i.e., of origin) or being upwardly mobile; having taught longer, and not having worked in business.

CHAPTER VI

DUAL ROLES AND WAGE-EARNING EMPHASES

Professional

Among the factors thought to have a potential relationship to the receptivity to change curriculum, was one linked uniquely to the role of being an employed homemaker, namely, the extent of professional involvement in relation to management of homemaking responsibilities. An underlying premise is that to modify curriculum requires time beyond that required to continue existing programs. The literature about employed homemakers is consistent in pointing out that most women mention the need for maintaining a relatively strict time schedule if they are to manage a job and homemaking with reasonable success. Thus, it is plausible that homemaker-teachers may differ in the management of domestic responsibilities as some, more so than others, strive to free as much time as possible for involvement in their profession. In turn, if such is the case, those minimizing time for domestic responsibilities and manifesting greater professional involvement, might with greater frequency implement innovations in curriculum. On this rationale, respondents were asked questions to gain information about professional involvement, orientation to work, and management of domestic responsibilities, including task performance and attitudes of husband and children towards her employment.

Professional Involvement

Two variables comprise professional involvement. These are:

1. Memberships and participation in professional organizations.
2. Professional journals subscribed to by respondent and indicated frequency of reading articles.
3. Professional journals accessible in school library and indicated frequency of reading articles.

Each of these were quantified as follows:

Professional memberships and participation, 1 point for each membership, 1 point for "rarely" attending meetings, 2 points for "sometimes" attending, 3 points for "usually" attending, and 4 points for committee memberships or offices held. Points were summed to obtain a total score. This is a modified version of the Chapin Social Participation Scale.⁸

Professional journal subscriptions were weighted, 2 points for each journal, 1 point for "rarely" reading articles, 2 points for "sometimes" reading, and 3 points for "usually" reading articles. With reference to use of professional journals at school, 1 point for each accessible,

⁸F.S. Chapin, "Social Participation Scale and Social Intelligence," American Sociological Review, April, 1939, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 159-65.

1 point for "rarely" reading articles, 2 points for "sometimes," and 3 points for "usually." Total scores were derived on each by summing points. These two scores were added to obtain a measure of professional involvement.

Table 6.1 presents the median professional participation scores.

Table 6.1 Median Professional Participation Scores by Participation Category

	N	Median	No Response	Total
Leaders ¹	7	16.0	3	7
Non-Participants ²	25	8.5	3	28
Experimental ³	78	9.0	1	79
Control ⁴	77	9.5	2	79
Total	187	9.0	6	193

1 - Range 6 to 84
2 - Range 2 to 16
3 - Range 1 to 33
4 - Range 2 to 28

Differences in medians between categories are relatively slight except that the median score for leaders is over 1½ times higher than for others. The range of scores is greatest for the leaders and least for non-participants.

Table 6.2 reports median professional reading scores.

Table 6.2 Median Professional Reading Scores by Participation Category

	N	Median	No Response	Total
Leaders ¹	7	20		7
Non-Participants ²	24	13	4	28
Experimental ³	79	16		79
Control ⁴	77	11	2	79
Total	187	14	6	193

1 - Range 12-36
2 - Range 1-25
3 - Range 2-30
4 - Range 2-31

Leaders have the highest median, with the experimental group second; non-participants, third; and the control group having the lowest median.

Differences are not great but do exceed variations in median professional participation scores.

Tables 6.3 and 6.4 report the results of examining median professional participation and reading scores, respectively, in relation to wage-earning categories.

Table 6.3 Median Professional Participation Scores of Experimental and Control Groups by Wage-Earning Category

	N	Median	No Response	Total
<u>Experimental</u>				
Wage Earning ¹	36	10.	1	37
No Wage Earning ²	41	8.5		41
No Response			1	1
Total	77	9.0	2	79
<u>Control</u>				
Wage Earning ³	44	10.		44
No Wage Earning ⁴	32	8.5	2	34
No Response			1	1
Total	76	9.5	3	79

1 - Range 2-33
 2 - Range 1-24
 3 - Range 2-21
 4 - 2-28

Table 6.4 Median Professional Reading Scores of Experimental and Control Groups by Wage-Earning Category

	N	Median	No Response	Total
<u>Experimental</u>				
Wage Earning ¹	37	16.5		37
No Wage Earning ²	41	15.		41
No Response			1	1
Total	78	16.	1	79
<u>Control</u>				
Wage Earning ³	42	13.	2	44
No Wage Earning ⁴	31	9.5	3	34
No Response			1	1
Total	73	11.	6	79

1 - Range 2-28
 2 - Range 5-30
 3 - Range 2-31
 4 - Range 2-25

Observable differences support the hypotheses that a positive relationship exists between these two variables and curriculum modification to incorporate a wage-earning emphases. Differences, though relatively slight, are consistently in the direction of being greater than medians of each total category for those incorporating a wage-earning emphases, and lower than medians of each total category for those having no wage-earning emphases.

As stated above, professional involvement scores were obtained by summing professional participation and reading scores. Tables 6.5 and 6.6 indicate medians by participation categories and by wage-earning categories respectively.

Table 6.5 Median Professional Involvement Scores by Participation Category

	N	Median	No Response	Total
Leaders ¹	5	32.5	2	7
Non-Participants ²	27	21.5	1	28
Experimental ³	79	26.0		79
Control ⁴	78	19.0	1	79
Total	189	23.5	4	193
1 - Range 25-45				
2 - Range 3-41				
3 - Range 6-48				
4 - Range 4-53				

Table 6.6 Median Professional Involvement Scores by Wage-Earning Categories

	N	Median	No Response	Total
<u>Experimental</u> Wage Earning ¹	37	36		37
No Wage Earning ²	41	25		41
No Response			1	1
Total	78	26	1	79
<u>Control</u> Wage Earning ³	44	24		44
No Wage Earning ⁴	33	18.5	1	34
No Response			1	1
Total	77	19.0	2	79
1 - Range 6-48				
2 - Range 7-46				
3 - Range 6-46				
4 - Range 4-53				

Leaders have the highest professional involvement, experimental group respondents rank second, non-participants third, with control group respondents last. Differences of medians are larger for the combined professional participation and reading scores, i.e., professional involvement, than when these are examined independently. When median professional involvement scores are examined in relation to wage-earning categories, variations point consistently to an association between greater involvement and incorporating wage-earning emphases. The difference in medians is very small for the experimental group categories. However, for the control group it is 5.5 points greater. This takes on greater meaning, since the respondents differentiated as wage earning and no wage earning in the control group reflect greater actual differences (i.e., 15 of the respondents are teachers of occupational courses).

Data on professional participation, professional reading, and combined as a measure of professional involvement were analyzed further by establishing categories of high, middle, and low for each of these three variables. With this modification, data for participation categories and wage-earning categories were re-examined.

The upper and lower limits of each category were set by using the distribution of scores for the control group and selecting those points which divided the sample into approximate thirds. The control group was used for setting upper and lower limits, since it is more nearly representative of all secondary home economics teachers than either of the other categories.

Tables 6.7 and 6.8 present the results of this analysis of professional participation by participation and wage-earning categories.

Table 6.7 Professional Participation Categories by Participation Category

	High (12+)		Middle (11-8)		Low (7-0)		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	6	85.6			1	14.4	7	100.
Non-participants	8	27.8	5	17.8	15	53.6	28	100.
Experimental	27	34.1	25	31.7	27	34.1	79	100.
Control	28	35.4	21	26.5	30	37.9	79	100.
Total	69	35.7	51	26.4	73	37.7	193	100.

Table 6.8 Professional Participation Categories by Wage-Earning Category

	High (12+)		Middle (11-8)		Low (7-0)		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	15	40.5	10	27.0	12	32.4	37	99.9
No Wage Earning	12	29.3	15	36.6	14	34.1	41	100.0
Total	27	34.6	25	32.1	26	33.3	78	100.0
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	18	40.9	14	31.8	12	27.2	44	99.9
No Wage Earning	10	29.4	7	20.6	17	50.0	34	100.0
Total	28	35.6	21	26.9	29	37.2	78	99.7

Evidence pertaining to two salient questions comes to the fore. First, what if any evidence supports the representativeness of the control group? Note that for this variable, proportional distribution of the control group is almost identical with proportional distribution of the total number of respondents. If sub-totals are computed for leaders, non-participants and experimental group (in a sense sub-populations of all secondary home economics teachers), the proportional distribution remains almost identical, i.e.,

<u>High</u>		<u>Middle</u>		<u>Low</u>		<u>Total</u>	
N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
41	36	30	26.3	43	37.7	114	100

Thus, data support the representative quality of the control group on at least this one variable. Another concern is for the validity of the professional participation scale. The nature of the scale is such that it has a certain face validity. In addition to that, the very nature of this study provides an external criterion for assessing validity, namely, that participation in workshops constitute a type of professional participation. Therefore, it is relevant to note that 53.6 percent of non-participants are in the low participation category. Keeping in mind that fifteen non-participants of the total 43 did not participate even to the extent of returning the mailed questionnaire, it is possible that the 28 who did respond are characterized by greater tendencies to participate than the total group.

When examined in relation to wage-earning categories, note that the proportion of respondents in the high category for Experimental - Wage Earning and Control-Wage Earning exceeds the proportions for each Total category. Conversely, examining data for the low category, in the Experimental - Wage Earning is only slightly less than the proportion for the Total, while in

the Control — Wage Earning category the direction is the same, supported by considerably larger proportional differences. Thus analyzed in this manner, as well as by comparison of medians, a positive relationship between professional participation and curriculum change is suggested. A follow-up study which makes it possible to more rigorously differentiate respondents on the criterion of change, may provide more than suggestive evidence for such a relationship.

Tables 6.9 and 6.10 report results for a similar analysis for professional reading data.

Table 6.9 Professional Reading Categories by Participation Category

	High (15+)		Middle (14-9)		Low (7-0)		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	5	71.4	1	14.3	1	14.3	7	100
Non-participants	12	42.8	6	21.4	10	35.7	28	99.9
Experimental	50	63.2	19	24.1	10	12.6	79	99.9
Control	29	34.8	25	32.6	25	32.6	79	100.0
Total	96	49.7	51	37.4	46	23.8	193	99.9

Table 6.10 Professional Reading Categories by Wage-Earning Category

	High (15+)		Middle (14-9)		Low (7-0)		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	24	64.8	8	21.6	5	13.5	37	99.9
No Wage Earning	25	60.9	11	26.6	5	12.2	41	99.7
No Response	1	100					1	100
Total	50	63.2	19	24.1	10	12.6	79	99.9
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	17	38.6	18	40.9	9	20.5	44	100
No Wage Earning	12	35.2	6	17.6	16	47.0	34	99.8
No Response			1	100			1	100
Total	29	34.8	25	32.6	25	32.1	79	100.0

The differences existing between the control group and the remaining three participation categories are considerable and difficult to explain. The leaders have the largest proportion in the high reading category; the experimental group ranks second; non-participants third, and the control group last. Examined in relation to wage-earning categories, respondents reporting wage-earning emphases tend to be categorized as high on professional reading at a rate which slightly exceeds the proportion for each total group and that of those reporting no wage-earning emphases. Conversely, for the control group those reporting no wage-earning emphasis appear in larger proportions in the low category of professional reading, at a rate rather considerably exceeding that of the total group and the wage-earning emphases category. Variations between experimental group respondents in the low category are in the reverse direction with a very small difference.

A similar analysis of professional involvement data yields the results appearing in Tables 6.11 and 6.12.

Table 6.11 Professional Involvement Categories by Participation Category

	High (27+)		Middle (26-17)		Low (16-0)		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	3	42.8	2	28.6	2	28.6	7	100
Non-Participants	9	32.1	8	28.6	11	39.2	28	99.9
Experimental	39	49.3	23	29.1	17	21.5	79	99.9
Control	24	30.4	30	37.9	25	31.7	79	100
Total	75	38.9	63	32.6	55	28.5	193	100

Table 6.12 Professional Involvement Categories by Wage-Earning Category

	High (27+)		Middle (27-17)		Low (16-0)		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	18	48.7	11	29.7	8	21.6	37	100
No Wage Earning	20	48.7	12	29.3	9	22.0	41	100
No Response	1	100					1	100
Total	39	49.3	23	29.1	17	21.5	79	99.9
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	17	38.6	16	36.4	11	25.0	44	100
No Wage Earning	7	20.5	13	38.2	14	41.1	34	99.9
No Response			1	100			1	100
Total	24	30.4	30	37.9	25	31.7	79	100

On this variable, a summation of professional participation and professional reading scores, the experimental group appear in the high category in a proportion exceeding all other categories, ranking second are leaders; third, non-participants, and last the control group. It is interesting to note that the single largest proportion of non-participants fall in the low professional involvement category.

Examination of data in relation to wage-earning categories indicate small variation for the experimental group. For the control group, however, the variations for wage-earning categories at each extreme support the existence of a positive relationship between wage-earning emphases and evidence of professional involvement.

Participation in Home Economics Organizations

Memberships in education associations as well as home economics organizations and vocational education associations are options for home economics teachers. Membership information was analyzed specifically to ascertain participation in county, state, and national organizations. Meetings are planned by the Home Economics section, Division of Vocational Education, The State Department of Education. Questions included these meetings, since these as well as those of home economics organizations constitute a potential source of information about innovations in home economics. Tables 6.13 and 6.14 present findings pertaining to memberships in home economics organizations.

Table 6.13 Membership in Professional Home Economics Associations by Participation Category

	Not Member		Some Membership		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders			6	85.7	1	14.3	7	100
Non-Participants	14	50	13	46.4	1	3.6	28	100
Experimental	33	41.8	46	58.2			79	100
Control	39	49.4	40	50.6			79	100
Total	86	44.6	105	54.4	2	1.0	193	100

For the total population 54.4 percent report some membership either in county, state, and national organizations, or all three. Of all categories, leaders have the largest proportion reporting memberships; the experimental group ranks second; control group, third, and non-participants last. Note that both the control group and the non-participants have a lower proportion reporting some memberships than for the total population.

Table 6.14 Membership in Professional Home Economics Associations by Wage-Earning Category

	Not Member		Some Membership		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	15	40.5	22	59.5			37	100
No Wage Earning	17	41.5	24	58.5			41	100
No Response	1	100					1	100
Total	33	41.8	46	58.2			79	100
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	22	50	22	50			44	100
No Wage Earning	17	50	17	50			34	100
No Response			1	100			1	100
Total	39	49.4	40	50.6			79	100

In Table 6.14, where membership is examined in relation to wage-earning categories, no variations occur between categories for the control group. The very minimal variations observable for the experimental group are most probably by chance.

Tables 6.15 and 6.16 present findings on attendance at meetings of NJHEA by participation categories and wage-earning categories.

Table 6.15 Attendance at Meetings of NJHEA by Participation Category

	Usually - Sometimes		Rarely - Never		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	6	85.7	1	14.3			7	100
Non-Participants	11	39.3	17	60.7			28	100
Experimental	35	44.3	35	44.3	9	11.4	79	100
Control	42	53.1	36	45.6	1	1.3	79	100
Total	94	48.7	89	46.1	10	5.2	193	100

Leaders rank first with the highest proportion indicating that they usually or sometimes attend. The control group ranks second, experimental group third, and non-participants last. Differences in proportion are slight for the total population with 48.7 reporting that they attend usually or sometimes, and 46.1 percent reporting that they rarely or never attend.

Table 6.16 Attendance at NJHEA Meetings by Wage-Earning Categories

	Usually - Sometimes		Rarely - Never		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	16	43.2	17	45.9	4	10.8	37	99.9
No Wage Earning	18	44.	18	43.9	5	12.2	41	100.1
No Response	1	100					1	100
Total	35	44.3	35	44.3	9	11.4	79	100.0
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	27	61.4	17	38.7			44	100.1
No Wage Earning	14	41.2	19	55.8	1	2.9	34	99.9
No Response	1	100					1	100
Total	42	53.2	36	45.6	1	1.3	79	100.1

Examined in relation to wage-earning categories, as evident in Table 6.16, observable differences within the experimental group are slight. Proportional differences are greater within the control group, and are in the direction of more participation being related to wage-earning emphases.

Data pertaining to attendance at state regional meetings indicated that for the total population, 54.9 percent report attendance, usually or sometimes; 39.4 percent report rarely or never attending. Leaders rank first in proportion attending usually or sometimes; control group second; experimental group, third, and non-participants last.

When examined in relation to wage earning, the observable differences exist for experimental group categories in the direction of more frequent attendance associated with wage earning. Observable differences between control group categories are very slight in the same direction as for the experimental group.

Tables 6.17 and 6.18 present information about attendance at national meetings.

Table 6.17 Attendance at National Meetings of AHEA by Participation Category

	Usually - Sometimes		Rarely - Never		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders			6	85.7	1	14.3	7	100
Non-Participants	4	14.3	24	85.7			28	100
Experimental	8	10.1	60	75.9	11	13.9	79	99.9
Control	16	20.2	61	77.2	2	2.5	79	99.9
Total	28	14.5	151	78.7	14	7.2	193	100.4

Differences between categories are small, with the largest proportion in each reporting rare attendance or none. The control group has the largest proportion reporting more frequent attendance.

Table 6.18 Attendance at AHEA Meetings by Wage-Earning Category

	Usually - Sometimes*		Rarely - Never		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	3	8.1	29	78.4	5	13.5	37	100
No Wage Earning	5	12.2	30	73.2	6	14.6	41	100
No Response			1	100			1	100
Total	8	10.1	60	76.0	11	13.9	79	100
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	11	25.6	31	72.1	1	2.3	43	100
No Wage Earning	4	11.7	30	88.3			34	100
No Response	1	100					1	100
Total	16	20.5	61	78.2	1	1.3	79	100.1

* No one responded - "usually" in experimental group
3 responded "usually" in control group

Examined in relation to wage-earning categories, slight observable differences occur in the experimental group. The direction is in terms of more participation for those having no wage-earning emphases. Observable differences between the control group categories are larger, and in the direction of more participation being positively related to having wage-earning emphases.

Viewed in terms of the fact that attendance at national conferences entails costs in time and money to travel to distant points for several days, it is not surprising that attendance is for the large proportion infrequent.

Journals Listed

Information provided which constituted the basis for deriving a professional reading score, was analyzed in greater detail to find out which magazines were most frequently listed. Data were examined also to find out the reported frequency of reading these journals. Journals thought to have articles relevant to all or some home economists depending upon specialization, were identified. The frequency with which these journals were among those listed was coded and tabulated. Magazines listed were: Practical Forecast, What's New in Home Economics, Journal of Home Economics, American Vocational Journal, Illinois Teacher Journal, American Dietetics Association publication, New Jersey Education Association Review, Today's Education, publication of the National Education Association.

Results

Table 6.19 reports the results for all respondents.

Table 6.19 Percent Listing Journals and Reporting of Reading

Journal	N = 193	Listed Percent	Usually Read Percent
<u>What's New in Home Economics</u>		65.3	56.4
<u>Practical Forecast</u>		63.7	53.3
<u>Journal of Home Economics</u>		51.8	35.7
<u>N.J.E.A. - Review</u>		48.3	28.0
<u>Today's Education</u>		35.8	17.0
<u>Illinois Teacher Journal</u>		11.9	8.2
<u>A.V.A. Journal</u>		3.1	2.5
<u>A.D.A. Journal</u>		2.1	1.0

The largest proportion of home economists listed What's New in Home Economics and Practical Forecast. Slightly over 50 percent of all respondents reported that they usually read these two magazines. The Journal of Home Economics and the State Education Association magazine ranked fourth and fifth in being listed. Slightly more than one-third reported that they usually read the Journal of Home Economics, and slightly over one-fourth usually read the N.J.E.A. Review. The Illinois Teacher Journal was listed by approximately 12 percent and read by 8 percent. The AVA Journal and ADA Journal were listed by a very small number.

Table 6.20 presents the results for the experimental, control, and non-participants.

Table 6.20 Percent Listing Journals and Reporting of Reading by Participation Category

Journal	N =	Experimental		Control		Non-Participants	
		List Percent	Read Percent	List Percent	Read Percent	List Percent	Read Percent
		79		79		28	
<u>What's New in Home Economics</u>		83.5	70.8	51.9	48.1	53.6	50
<u>Practical Forecast</u>		79.7	65.8	51.9	45.6	50.	42.8
<u>Journal of Home Economics</u>		50.6	30.4	48.1	41.8	60.7	35.7
<u>N.J.E.A. Review</u>		50.6	24.0	41.8	29.0	53.6	35.7
<u>Today's Education</u>		40.5	16.4	31.6	20.2	25.	10.7
<u>Illinois Teacher Journal</u>		15.2	11.3	6.4	5.0	14.3	7.1
<u>A.V.A. Journal</u>		2.5	2.5	1.3			
<u>A.D.A. Journal</u>		3.8	2.5	1.3	1.2		

A higher proportion of the experimental group list and report frequent reading of What's New in Home Economics and Practical Forecast than do either the control group or non-participants.

Variations are slight for other journals with no group consistently ranking higher than another.

When these same data were examined in relation to wage-earning categories, variations once again were slight and followed no consistent pattern.

Summary

In sum, generally the leaders are characterized by high professional involvement as evident in professional memberships and reading. With reference to professional memberships, only slight variations appeared between the experimental and control groups; the non-participants reported the lowest degree of participation. The experimental group reported more professional reading than did the non-participants or control group. This difference remained for professional involvement, which was a summation of membership participation and reading.

Analysis of participation data in relation to wage-earning emphases consistently supported a slight but positive relationship between more professional participation and incorporating wage-earning emphases.

Slightly over half of the respondents reported membership at either county, state or national level of home economics associations. Slightly less than half reported that they usually attend the state association meetings.

An examination of journals listed and reported to be most frequently read, found What's New in Home Economics and Practical Forecast ranking first and second. The Journal of Home Economics ranked third. The reported reading of professional journals raises a serious question as to the effectiveness of these as a means for continuing professional education. For no journal did the proportion exceed 56.4 percent who reported that they "usually" read it.

Homemaker: Management of Domestic Responsibilities

The management of domestic responsibilities was considered a potentially significant variable, since women have these responsibilities in addition to those of employment. It was thought plausible that women might give different priorities to these areas with implications for the amount of time and energy devoted to each. Specifically, some women might manage domestic responsibilities in such a way as to reduce time required, whereas others would not. Data pertaining to help with domestic responsibilities was elicited to answer the question, "Do some teachers have fewer demands to meet in the home as a consequence of greater assistance from family members?" Is this an observable difference between those teachers who innovate by teaching wage-earning emphases and those who do not? Put more directly, career involvement may lead to greater receptivity to making changes in the field, and career involvement may be manifest in efforts to reduce the time required to meet other obligations.

Two types of data were obtained. One question was directed to the respondents perception of the three most important factors helping her to achieve her goals in homemaking. Some respondents thought the question was directed to the teaching of homemaking rather than her homemaking. This may have contributed to the relatively high rate of no response, particularly for those in categories other than the control group. Since the control group was interviewed, the interviewer clarified the referent of the question to these respondents. Further,

although the question was restated for both the mailed questionnaire and those distributed to the experimental group, some ambiguity apparently persisted.

The second type of question was more objective in nature. Respondents were asked to identify services which they purchased. Routine domestic tasks such as cooking, cleaning, ironing, laundry, grocery shopping, and family finances were listed. Respondents were asked to indicate whether specified family members sometimes or routinely assisted with these tasks. Where left blank, it was assumed no help was provided from the family members indicated.

Results

Two factors mentioned an equal number of times as the most important in helping her achieve homemaking goals, were cooperation of family members 51 (26.4 percent), and management skills 51 (26.4 percent). The third factor mentioned as most important was the respondents motivation, 15 (7.7 percent). Twenty-two percent (39) did not respond to the question. The remaining 17.5 percent gave varied responses including outside help, limited responsibilities, health, relaxed standards, appliances, convenience foods, and hours of employment.

The second most important factor was identified by a larger number, 49 (25 percent) management skills; cooperative family, 33 (17 percent), with motivation listed by 15 (7.7 percent). Fifty-three (27 percent) did not respond to the question. Remaining respondents cited with varying frequencies the factors enumerated above.

When asked for a third important factor, the no response jumped to 70 (36 percent); management skills were cited by 32 (approximately 17 percent); motivation by 24 (12 percent), and cooperative family by 17 (8.7 percent). Remaining responses were as indicated for the first and second factors.

Services purchased

Release from household tasks could come from purchasing some services. However, 68 percent report that they do not employ domestic help; 5.5 percent employ domestic help once every two weeks or less; 15.5 percent one day per week; 6.8 percent two days per week or more; 4.6 percent report some other combinations of assistance.

Sixty-two percent report doing all laundry at home; 27.4 percent (approximately 50 percent of those married) send shirts out; 5.8 percent send all laundry out.

Only 2.7 percent report that they have grocery orders delivered.

Child care is purchased by 17, i.e., 16 percent of those 104 teachers having children of varying ages.

Eating out more than one time per week was reported by 13 percent; once a week by 20 percent; several times per month, 26.5 percent; not at all by 39.4 percent.

Assistance from others

Husbands: A majority of all respondents in the experimental, control, and non-participants groups reported that husbands routinely helped with family finances. Observable differences between the experimental and control groups were slight and probably due to chance. The small number of cases in the non-participant group increases the likelihood that observable differences are a result of chance. (See Table 6.21.)

Table 6.21 Report Husbands Help With Family Finances by Participation Category

	N	Percent
Experimental	50	54
Control	40	55
Non-Participants	14	78.5

Shopping for groceries ranked second as an area in which respondents reported more frequent routine assistance from husbands. Yet the larger proportion reported assistance "sometimes" or not at all. (Table 6.22.)

Table 6.22 Report Husbands Assist With Grocery Shopping

	N	Routinely Percent	Sometimes Percent	Not at All Percent
Experimental	50	26	50	24
Control	40	30	32.5	37.5
Non-Participants	14	35.7	35.7	28.6

Table 6.23 presents the results with reference to assistance in cleaning.

Table 6.23 Report Husbands Assist With Cleaning

	N	Routinely Percent	Sometimes Percent	Not at All Percent
Experimental	50	14	44	42
Control	40	27.5	20	52
Non-Participants	14	21.4	57.1	21.4

The control group reports the greatest routine assistance but also has the largest proportion reporting no assistance. For all groups, the majority report assistance sometimes or not at all.

With reference to laundry (Table 6.24), the largest proportion of all groups report no assistance.

Table 6.24 Report Husbands Assist With Laundry

	N	Routinely Percent	Sometimes Percent	Not at All Percent
Experimental	50	6	20	74
Control	40	12.5	10	77.5
Non-Participants	14	21.4	35.7	42.9

In combining the "routine" and "sometimes" categories, observable differences between the experimental and control groups are small and due to chance. The non-participants report more frequently having assistance. The small number of cases increases the likelihood that these may be chance differences.

The picture of routine assistance for only small proportions of respondents persists in examining data on the areas of washing dishes, cooking, and ironing. Tables 6.25, 6.26, 6.27 present the results.

Table 6.25 Report Assistance from Husbands in Washing Dishes

	N	Routinely Percent	Sometimes Percent	Not at All Percent
Experimental	50	12	50	38
Control	40	10	35	55
Non-Participants	14	21.4	42.9	35.7

Table 6.26 Report Assistance from Husbands With Cooking

	N	Routinely Percent	Sometimes Percent	Not at All Percent
Experimental	50	4	32	64
Control	40	2.5	37.5	60.0
Non-Participants	14	14.3	28.6	57.1

Observable differences between the experimental and control group areas for washing dishes and cooking were tested for statistical significance by dichotomizing the data on a "some help" "no help" basis. Differences were not statistically significant.

Table 6.27 Report Assistance from Husbands With Ironing

	N	Routinely Percent	Sometimes Percent	Not at All Percent
Experimental	50	2	4	94
Control	40		5	95
Non-Participants	14		14.3	85.7

Observable differences between the experimental and control groups in the area of ironing are small. The limited number of cases in the non-participant category make these purely suggestive.

The largest majority of respondents in all three categories report no assistance in this area.

Data pertaining to husband's assistance with routine household tasks were analyzed in relation to wage-earning categories.

Relatively small observable differences occurred between respondents in both the experimental and control groups indicating wage-earning emphases when contrasted with those reporting no wage-earning emphases. The differences followed the direction of those reporting wage-earning emphases also reporting in a higher proportion, assistance from husband with cleaning. In all categories, however, the majority reported that husbands did not assist in cleaning.

With the tasks of laundry, ironing, cooking, dishes and shopping, variations were slight between categories. In all cases only a small proportion reported routine assistance.

Children

Of the total 193 respondents, 104 (i.e., 54 percent) reported having children of varying ages. Of the 104, 59 (57 percent) reported some assistance with cleaning from children. Twenty percent reported that children sometimes help; 10 percent that children help routinely.

With reference to assistance with laundry, 19 (18 percent) reported occasional help, and 8 (7 percent) reported routine help.

The proportion reporting assistance with ironing was also low, with 8 (7 percent) reporting routine assistance, and 24 (23 percent) reporting occasional help. The proportions remained much the same in reporting occasional and routine assistance with cooking and shopping. Twenty-eight (27 percent) reported routine assistance with dishes, 25 (24 percent) reported occasional assistance. Five and six percent reported routine and occasional help respectively with family finances.

In sum, children appear not to play an important part in fulfilling domestic responsibilities. This may in part result from the ages of children. Observable differences between the experimental, control, and non-participants groups were very slight with no consistent trends evident. The limited number of cases in cells precluded the use of tests of statistical significance. Analysis in relation to wage-earning categories showed slight variations between categories with the only consistent trend being that the largest proportion indicated no assistance.

Mothers and Mothers-in-law

Responses to questions pertaining to assistance from mothers indicated that less than 25 percent received assistance. For specific areas the proportion was even lower. When assistance was reported by what was usually

less than 15 percent, routine rather than occasional help was reported. The one area which differed was for family finance, where occasional help was reported.

For 97 percent of all respondents, mothers-in-law do not constitute a source of help with domestic responsibilities. The total number reporting some type of assistance never exceeded four.

When these data were examined in relation to wage-earning categories, a slightly larger proportion of the control group reporting no wage-earning emphases, reported assistance from mothers. Actual frequencies were small, and proportions never exceeded 26 percent and were usually smaller. This is quite likely a reflection of the larger proportion of control group respondents who are younger and single.

Roommates

It was thought that some unmarried teachers might share living quarters and responsibilities with another person. Responses indicating assistance from this source never exceeded six.

With reference to domestic responsibilities, the majority of respondents appear to fulfill these responsibilities routinely. In general, responses indicate only occasional assistance from other persons.

Attitudes of Husband and Children

Family members can provide assistance in various ways to employed homemakers. Assistance through help with domestic tasks has been treated above. The effectiveness with which the employed homemaker manages her dual roles may be influenced as well by the attitudes of her husband and children. Respondents were asked the degree to which husbands and children favored or opposed their teaching.

Table 6.28 presents data pertaining to husbands' attitudes.

Table 6.28 Husbands' Attitudes by Participation Category

	N	Strongly Favors Percent	Favors Percent	Doesn't Care Percent	Opposes Percent	Strongly Opposes Percent
Experimental	60	33.3	46.6	20		
Control	42	52.4	26.1	14.2	4.7	2.4
Non-Participants	25	40	44	8	8	

Analysis in relation to wage-earning categories, found small observable difference within the control group. The only trend was for more than three-quarters of both groups to report favorable or strongly favorable attitudes of husband as contrast to only 69 percent of those having no wage-earning emphasis.

Attitudes of Children

Persons responding to the question pertaining to attitudes of children indicated most frequently that these were favorable.

Table 6.29 Children's Attitudes by Participation Category

	N	Strongly Favors Percent	Favors Percent	Doesn't Care Percent	Opposes Percent	Strongly Opposes Percent
Experimental	38	10.5	60.5	28.9		
Control	28	25.0	35.7	28.5	10.7	
Non-Participants	14	28.5	64.2	7.1		

The experimental group responses show a narrower range of variation than do those of the control group, evident in that no experimental group respondents indicated that children opposed their working, whereas three control group respondents did. Data for non-participants suggest that children of these respondents tend to be more frequently favorable toward their working. The small number of cases precludes considering this other than suggestive.

An examination of data in relation to control group wage-earning categories showed slight variations between those having wage-earning emphasis and those who do not. For both categories over 80 percent of those responding, reported that children were either favorable or did not care. Data for experimental group wage-earning categories varied slightly between categories. However, all respondents in both categories reported favorable attitudes or that children did not care.

Summary

In sum, the larger proportion of respondents reported favorable attitudes on the part of husbands and childrens toward their working or that they did not care whether or not she worked. Only a relatively low proportion reported opposition.

Considering the fact that respondents cited management skills, cooperation of family and motivation as major factors in helping her to achieve her goals in homemaking, data pertaining to services purchased and help with routine

tasks from others support the view of heavy reliance upon herself. From the data available, cooperation of family appears to mean that members have favorable attitudes toward her teaching, rather than routine assistance with many domestic responsibilities. These findings suggest that professional home economists, like other employed women, continue to assume major responsibility for homemaking.

CHAPTER VII

SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL VARIABLES

Social-psychological variables thought potentially to be significantly related to whether or not a teacher workshop participant would modify curriculum were: self-perceptions as an opinion leader, self-evaluation of her effectiveness as a teacher, type of belief system (dogmatism), risk-taking propensities, work orientation and job satisfaction. In this chapter, each will be described in terms of the rationale for selection, measurement, and findings.

Self-Perception as an Opinion Leader

Rogers in his study of diffusion of innovations has delineated the characteristics of innovators as well as those of other categories of adopters, specified in relation to the speed with which change is made. He states that, "available research evidence indicates that opinion leaders are more innovative than their followers."⁹ He goes on to indicate that seemingly contradictory evidence on whether opinion leaders are innovators, seems to indicate the need to consider social system norms on innovativeness as a partial determiner of the innovativeness of opinion leaders.

Rogers' definition of an opinion leader was, "individuals who are influential in approving or disapproving new ideas."¹⁰ The definition serves for this study.

Among the several approaches used to measure opinion leadership, the self-designating opinion leadership scale developed by Rogers was considered most feasible for the research conditions of this study. The scale is composed of six items. Rogers devised it in 1957 in a study of diffusion of new farm ideas, thus the terminology of the six items reflect this orientation. He reported, in relation to validity of the scale that, respondents who received one or more sociometric choices made by neighbors, had a significantly higher score on the self-designating opinion leadership scale. The split-half reliability was .703.¹¹

The terminology of the six items was modified to make them relevant to the sample of home economists in this study (see p.241, Appendix B). To illustrate the type of modification, Rogers' first item questioned:

"During the past six months have you told anyone about some new farming practice?"

⁹Everett M. Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations, The Free Press of Glencoe, New York, 1962, p. 242.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 208-9.

¹¹Ibid., p. 231.

This item was modified for this study to read: "During the past six months have you told anyone about some new information or practice in home economics?" Responses were "yes" or "no."

Responses indicating influencing were scored 1, with an 0 for the alternative. Thus, the highest possible score was 6 and the lowest 0.

Results

Analysis of responses in terms of mean scores showed the following:

Table 7.1 Mean Scores on Self-Designating Opinion Leadership Scale by Participation Category

Participation Category	Opinion Leadership Scores	
	N	Mean
Leaders	7	5.3
Non-Participants	28	3.7
Experimental	77*	3.8
Control	79	4.4

* Two respondents failed to provide complete data

Differences are relatively slight. However, it is noteworthy that leaders had the highest mean, control group ranked second, and the non-participants lowest.

The criteria upon which teachers serving as leaders were indicated in the second chapter and included ability to communicate ideas about wage-earning emphases. Further, five of the leaders might legitimately be classified as innovators in Rogers terminology, since all had or were initiating occupational courses in home economics related occupations. These programs were among some of the first to be initiated in the state. By a similar criterion, as reported earlier, some persons in the control group could be classified as innovators also, since teachers of wage-earning courses were included in this group. Thus, mean scores of the control group might be higher as a result of these innovators being a part of the total.

An actual analysis of the data to test this possibility indicated, however, that this was not the case. More detailed analysis shows that fifteen persons in the control group were engaged in teaching with wage-earning emphases. The mean self-designating opinion leadership score for these fifteen teachers was, 4.26, in contrast to the remaining 64 with a mean 4.48. Differences are exceedingly small, yet do not show innovators as being more inclined to see themselves as opinion leaders.

Examined in relation to wage-earning categories, the following results were obtained.

Table 7.2 Mean Scores on Self-Designating Opinion Leadership Scale by Wage-Earning Categories

Wage-Earning Categories	Opinion Leadership Scores	
	N	Mean
<u>Experimental</u>		
Wage-earning emphases	37	3.9
No wage-earning emphases	39*	3.7
<u>Control</u>		
Wage-earning emphases	44	4.7
No wage-earning emphases	34	4.2

* Two no responses

As evident from the above, differences are minimal, but are in the direction of greater self-perception as an opinion leader being linked with wage-earning emphases.

An item analysis of the self-designating opinion leadership scale follows.

Item one asked: "During the past six months have you told anyone about some new information or practice in home economics?" ____Yes ____No.

Table 7.3 Percent of Responses to Item One by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	Yes Percent	No Percent	No Response Percent
Leaders	7	100		
Non-Participants	28	92.9	3.6	3.6
Experimental Group	79	91.1	5.1	3.8
Control Group	79	96.2	3.8	
Total	193	93.8	4.1	2.1

As can be noted, differences on this item by category are small.

Item two: "Compared with other home economists whom you know, (a) are you more or (b) less likely to be asked for advice about new practices in home economics?"

Table 7.4 Percent of Responses to Item Two by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	More Likely Percent	Less Likely Percent	No Response Percent
Leaders	7	100		
Non-Participants	28	71.4	17.9	10.7
Experimental Group	79	58.2	29.1	12.6
Control Group	79	79.7	17.7	2.6
Total	193	70.5	21.8	7.8

Responses to these items suggest that respondents in the experimental group are less likely to perceive themselves as opinion leaders.

Item three read: "Thinking back to your last discussion about something new in home economics, (a) were you asked for your opinion or (b) did you ask someone else?"

Table 7.5 Percent of Responses to Item Three by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	Asked for Opinion Percent	Asked Someone Else Percent	No Response Percent
Leaders	7	71.4	14.3	14.3
Non-Participants	28	64.3	25.0	10.7
Experimental Group	79	70.9	21.5	7.6
Control Group	79	78.5	16.5	5.
Total	193	73.1	19.7	7.2

Variations between groups fall within a relatively narrow range on this item, with non-participants having the lowest proportion reporting opinion leadership, followed by the experimental group.

Item four: "When you discuss new ideas about home economics with other home economists, what part do you play?" _____ mainly listen _____ try to convince them of your ideas.

Table 7.6 Percent of Responses to Item Four by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	Convince Others Percent	Mainly Listen Percent	No Response Percent
Leaders	7	57.1	28.6	14.3
Non-Participants	28	35.7	50	14.3
Experimental Group	79	35.4	53.2	11.4
Control Group	79	45.6	49.4	5.0
Total	193	40.4	50.3	9.3

On this item, a higher proportion of the leaders than any other category try to convince others of their ideas. Respondents in the non-participants and experimental group are similar in the larger proportion who see themselves as mainly listening.

The fifth item asked: "Which of these happens more often?"

- _____ (a) Do you tell other home economists about some new practice
or
_____ (b) Do they tell you of some new practice?

Table 7.7 Percent of Responses to Item Five by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	Tell Others Percent	They Tell Me Percent	No Response Percent
Leaders	7	100		
Non-Participants	28	50	25	24.3
Experimental Group	79	45.6	32.9	21.6
Control Group	79	63.3	22.8	13.9
Total	193	55.4	26.4	11.4

Leaders definitely perceive themselves as opinion leaders in response to this question. Respondents in the experimental group see themselves as opinion leaders less frequently than those in other categories in this context.

The last item asked: "Do you have the feeling that you are generally regarded by other home economists as a good source of advice about new practices in home economics?"

Table 7.8 Percent of Responses to Item Six by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	Yes Percent	No Percent	No Response Percent
Leaders	7	100		
Non-Participants	28	57.1	28.6	14.3
Experimental Group	79	69.6	19.0	11.4
Control Group	79	81.0	13.9	5.1
Total	193	73.6	17.6	8.9

Note that non-participants and experimental group responses indicate that lower proportions see themselves as opinion leaders than of leaders or control group.

Generally, when the group referent is clearly other home economists, i.e., items 4, 5, and 6, the proportion seeing themselves as opinion leaders, with the exception of leaders, tends to decrease. A comparison limited to experimental and control groups responses on these same items finds a consistently larger proportion of control group respondents designating themselves as opinion leaders.

Self-Evaluation of Effectiveness as a Teacher

A teacher's evaluation of her effectiveness as a teacher was thought to be potentially related to her receptivity to ideas of curriculum change. The direction of the relationship is open to evidence. It could be hypothesized that the teacher who sees herself as being effective may see no reason to modify her instruction in method or content, yet on the other side it is also plausible that seeing oneself as effective may be linked with introducing new approaches, hence receptivity. One could posit a curvilinear relationship in that those who see themselves as being ineffective, would be more receptive to innovations which might increase effectiveness. For the purpose of this study, the basic question was: "Do those teachers who modify curriculum differ significantly in their self-evaluation as to teaching effectiveness from those who do not modify curriculum?"

A search of the literature within the time limit of the project* was unsuccessful in finding a self-report measure of teaching effectiveness. Consequently, an admittedly crude measure of ten items was devised. The content of the ten items pertained to these areas: Ability to communicate ideas and information to students, knowledge of field, sensitivity to student needs and interests, relation with other teachers, planning of courses, results achieved, and evaluation of student achievement. (See Appendix B, p. 28.) Each respondent was asked to rate herself on each attribute on a 1 to 5 scale, with one being poor, and five excellent. The highest possible score was 50, and the lowest 10.

Results

The range of scores on the scale was from 28 to 49. The mean score for all 193 respondents was 41.3. The distribution was skewed. Table 7.9 presents mean scores by participation category.

Table 7.9 Mean Scores on Self-Evaluation Scale of Teacher Effectiveness by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	Self-Evaluation Scores Mean
Leaders ¹	7	41.2
Non-Participants ²	28	40.9
Experimental Group ³	79	41.1
Control Group ⁴	79	41.3
Total	193	41.3

1 - Range 34-47

2 - Range 35-49

3 - Range 33-49

4 - Range 31-49

*Several have been found since which bear some resemblance to the measure developed. These seem to have inadequacies similar to those of the scale developed in that distributions of respondents tend to be skewed toward the upper end.

An examination of mean scores on the self-evaluation scale by wage-earning categories produced the following:

Table 7.10 Mean Scores on Self-Evaluation Scale of Teacher Effectiveness by Wage-Earning Category

Wage-Earning Category	N	Self-Evaluation Scores Mean
<u>Experimental</u>		
Wage Earning	37	40.8
No Wage Earning	41	41
<u>Control</u>		
Wage Earning	44	42.5
No Wage Earning	34	40.3

Mean-score variations for all categories are minimal and most probably chance occurrences.

Another approach was used in that three categories of high, middle and low self evaluation of effectiveness were established on the basis of distribution of all scores. The category boundaries for high and low were set to roughly include the upper and lower quartile respectively, with the 2 and 3 quartiles being categorized as middle. Since the scores were distributed over a narrow range, the percent in the high and low categories vary from 25 percent. The question was then asked, "Do those teachers reporting wage-earning emphases appear disproportionately in any of the three categories of self evaluation of teaching effectiveness?"

Table 7.11 Number and Percent of Respondents in Experimental Group Wage-Earning Category by Teacher Effectiveness Category

Teacher Effectiveness	Total Population		Experimental Group			
	N = 193	Percent	Wage Earning N	Percent	No Wage Earning N	Percent
High (50-45)		21.8	9	24.3	6	14.6
Middle (44-40)		48.7	12	32.4	26	63.4
Low (39-under)		29.5	16	43.3	9	21.9
Total		100	37	100.0	41	99.9

Table 7.12 Number and Percent in Control Group Wage-Earning Categories by Teacher Effectiveness Category

Teacher Effectiveness	Total Population		Control Group			
	N = 193	Percent	Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
			N	Percent	N	Percent
High (50-45)		21.8	15	34	5	14.7
Middle (44-40)		48.7	21	47.7	17	50.0
Low (39-under)		29.5	8	18.2	12	35.3
Total		100.0	44	99.9	34	100.0

None of the observable differences approach statistical significance. Note, however, that for both the experimental and control wage-earning categories, the proportion of respondents in the high category exceeds the proportion for the total number of respondents, whereas the proportion in the no wage-earning categories is less than that for the total. In the experimental group, the proportion of wage-earning category respondents in the low teacher effectiveness category exceeds that for all respondents, and also for those in the no wage-earning category. For the control group, however, the reverse is true, with only 18.2 percent in the low category in contrast to 35.3 percent of those in the no wage-earning category and 29.5 percent of all 193 respondents.

An examination of self-evaluation of teaching effectiveness scores of fifteen innovators, found disproportionate representation in the high and middle categories.

Table 7.13 Number and Percent of Innovators by Self-Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness Category

Teacher Effectiveness	Total Population		Innovators	
	N = 193	Percent	N	Percent
High (50-45)		21.8	4	26.6
Middle (44-40)		48.7	10	66.7
Low (39-under)		29.5	1	6.7
Total		100.0	15	100.0

An item analysis indicated that 85 percent or more of respondents in each participation category rated themselves 4 or 5 on being sensitive to student needs, interested in teaching, cooperating with other teachers, and establishing rapport with students. These responses show a consistency with the expressed reasons for preferring teaching to work in business, namely, liking of students.

Over 85 percent of the leaders rated themselves 4 or 5 on being well informed, whereas slightly over 70 percent of the non-participants and experimental group rated themselves as such, as did 65 percent of the control group.

When asked to rate themselves on planning courses to meet changing needs, all of the leaders rated themselves either 4 or 5; over 80 percent of non-participants and experimental group gave themselves a 4 or 5 rating, as did 69 percent of the control group.

Over 80 percent of non-participants rated themselves 4 or 5 when asked to do so in relation to developing new course materials to reflect changes in the profession. Seventy-six percent of the control group gave themselves a similar rating, as did 70 percent of the leaders and 69 percent of the experimental group.

When asked to rate their effectiveness in evaluating student achievement, slightly over 70 percent of the leaders, non-participants, and experimental group gave 4 or 5 ratings, whereas 83 percent of the control group rated themselves thusly.

With the high self-ratings on sensitivity to student needs, interest in teaching and establishing rapport with students, it is of value to note that when asked to evaluate whether they achieved excellent results, the proportion giving 4 or 5 ratings decreased to slightly over 60 percent for all categories, except for leaders, of whom 43 percent gave one of these two ratings. The largest proportion of the remaining responses were ratings of 3.

In sum, most teachers see themselves as being effective teachers. Variations among categories were relatively slight. Although some data for the control group suggested a positive relation between high self-rating and wage-earning emphases, evidence in the experimental group varied from this. All variations were small and none attained statistical significance.

Evidence pertaining to the possible relevance of this variable, as measured herein, should be more reliable when examined in relationship to follow-up data, which will provide a more rigorous criterion for wage-earning emphases respondents.

Job Satisfaction I

Job satisfaction was thought potentially to be related to receptivity to curriculum change. The premise was that the change sought constituted a change of the job, thus receptivity to initiating change might be linked to present satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Plausibly, one could make a case for a positive relationship between dissatisfaction and receptivity to change, but it seems equally plausible that present satisfaction may provide a stimulus to move in directions which present the possibility of greater satisfaction. Further reflection suggests that the source of satisfaction on the job might be significant in explaining the presence or absence of a positive relationship with change. Specifically, if satisfaction is primarily linked to the present type of activity, e.g., classroom instruction in a specific content area directed to achieving specific type goals, then curriculum change necessitating a modification of activity, broadening content, and planning instruction for different goals, may be viewed as reducing or eliminating present satisfactions, with minimal likelihood of producing others. Others, however, for whom satisfaction is derived primarily from the awareness of being a part of significant life experiences for the student, and from the knowledge that one is making the optimal contribution to students, may be quite receptive to changes which are viewed as increasing the benefits for students. Other specific areas of satisfaction on the job may be of significance as well.

Two measures of job satisfaction were included. The one is a series of five questions with responses from 1 to 5 indicating the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The total score was derived by summing the number of points circled. (See Appendix B, pp. 28-29.). Four of the five questions were devised by Nancy C. Morse¹² in a study of job satisfactions in white collar jobs in an industrial setting. The fifth question was added to gain an indication of the perception of respondents pertaining to the value of her work accorded by other teachers and administrators.

¹²Nancy C. Morse, Satisfaction in the White Collar Job, Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, July 1953, pp. 186-188.

Results

As indicated in Table 7.14 below, mean score differences were very slight.

Table 7.14 Mean Scores on Job Satisfaction Scale by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	Job Satisfaction Mean Scores
Leaders ¹	7	22.7
Non-Participants ²	28	22.2
Experimental Group ³	79	21.5
Control Group ⁴	79	21.9
Total	193	21.8

1 - Range 20-25

2 - Range 16-25

3 - Range 13-25

4 - Range 14-25

With the highest possible score 25, it is evident that as a group, respondents scored high on job satisfaction.

When examined in relation to wage-earning categories for the experimental and control groups, the results appearing in Table 7.15 were obtained.

Table 7.15 Mean Scores on Job Satisfaction Scale by Wage-Earning Category

Wage-Earning Category	N	Job Satisfaction Mean Scores
<u>Experimental</u> Wage Earning ¹	37	21.3
No Wage Earning ²	41	21.5
<u>Control</u> Wage Earning ³	44	22.8
No Wage Earning ⁴	34	21.3

1 - Range 13-25

2 - Range 15-25

3 - Range 17-25

4 - Range 14-25

The largest observable difference appeared between categories in the control group. However, the difference is slight.

On the basis of the distribution of scores for the total 193 respondents, categories were delineated and labeled high, middle, low on job satisfaction. The intent was to use the upper and lower quartiles respectively for the high and low categories. Since the scores clustered within a relatively narrow range, the actual proportions in the high and low categories tend to exceed 25 percent.

Tables 7.16 and 7.17 report the results in relation to the wage-earning categories for the experimental and control groups.

Table 7.16 Number and Percent in Experimental Group Wage-Earning Category by Job Satisfaction Category

Job Satisfaction Category	Total Population		Experimental Group			
	N = 193	Percent	Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
			N	Percent	N	Percent
High (25-24)		30.5	10	27	7	17.1
Middle (23-21)		42.5	17	46	22	53.6
Low (20-13)		26.9	10	27	12	29.3
Total		99.9	37	100	41	100.0

$$x^2 = 3.4 \text{ 2d.f. n. sign}$$

Within the experimental group, differences are slight and not statistically significant. However, a slightly larger proportion of those teachers reporting wage-earning emphases also report high job satisfaction.

Table 7.17 Number and Percent of Respondents in Control Group Wage-Earning Category by Job Satisfaction Category

Job Satisfaction Category	Total Population		Control Group			
	N = 193	Percent	Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
			N	Percent	N	Percent
High		30.5	20	45.5	7	20.6
Middle (23-21)		42.5	18	40.9	15	44.1
Low (20-13)		26.9	6	13.6	12	35.3
Total		99.9	44	100.0	34	100.0

$$x^2 = 7.36 \text{ df 2 sign. at .05 level}$$

As can be noted from the above table, teachers in the wage-earning category are represented disproportionately in the high job satisfaction category. The direction of variation supports the thesis that a positive relationship exists between high job satisfaction and wage-earning emphasis. Whether teaching wage-earning emphases leads to greater job satisfaction or the reverse, cannot be discerned from the type of data available. As indicated earlier in the report, fifteen of the 44 are teachers of occupational courses, and had been prior to obtaining a measure of job satisfaction. An examination of data in relation to the distribution of the fifteen innovators produces the following:

Table 7.18 Number and Percent of Fifteen Innovators in Control Group by Job Satisfaction Category

Job Satisfaction Category	Innovators		Total Population	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
High (25-24)	8	53.3	59	30.5
Middle (23-21)	4	26.7	82	42.5
Low (20-13)	3	20.0	52	26.9
Total	15	100.0	193	99.9

The results support the relationship between high satisfaction and wage-earning emphases. Although the number of innovators is small, it should be kept in mind that the 15 constitute approximately 31 percent of the 48 teachers of occupation courses during 1967-68. Since these teachers were among the control group, drawn by a random sampling technique, greater confidence in the data is warranted.

Evidence from the follow-up study may provide some suggestions as to the nature of the relationship. It is possible that teachers in the experimental group who report the incorporation of wage-earning emphases, may also report an increase in job satisfaction; or job satisfaction may remain the same, while those reporting high satisfaction in this pilot study, more frequently report change.

An examination of responses to each item disclosed that in all but one of the five items a consistent pattern emerged, namely, that among non-participants, control and experimental groups, a larger proportion of the control group reported the highest satisfaction, non-participants varied only slightly from the control group, whereas the experimental group had the lowest proportion responding thusly.

Item One: "How well do you like what you are doing?" Responding with a 5 were 71 percent control, 71 percent non-participants, 61 percent of experimental group, and 100 percent of the leaders.

Item Two: "Does your work give you a chance to do the things you feel you do best?" Sixty-three percent of the control group checked a 5, 57 percent of the non-participants, 49 percent of the experimental, and 42.9 percent of the leaders.

Item Three: "Do you get any feeling of accomplishment for the work you are doing?" Of the 79 control-group respondents, 66 percent said very much so (rating of 5), 53 percent of the non-participants, 43 percent of the experimental group, and 57 percent of the leaders.

Item Four: "How do you feel about your work: does it rate as an important job with you?" Eighty-two percent of the non-participants circled a 5 (very much so), 81 percent of the control group, 75 percent of the experimental, and 100 percent of the leaders.

Item Five: "How do you think other teachers and administrators feel about your work: do they rate it as an important job?" This item produced the single exception in the pattern of responses. This was the one item which produced a wider distribution of responses. Only 25 percent of non-participants circled 5 (very much so), 22 percent of the experimental group, and 20 percent of the controls. In contrast, 57 percent of the leaders rated it so. Of non-participants, 43 percent responded with a 4, also 41 percent of the control group, 32 percent of the experimental, and 14 percent of the leaders.

Item analysis in relation to wage-earning categories in the experimental group found small variations due to chance, in all but the fifth. To the last item, pertaining to the importance of the work to other teachers and administrators, 59 percent of the respondents in the wage-earning category responded with a 4 or 5, whereas 49 percent of those reporting no wage-earning emphases gave a 4 or 5 response.

Item analysis in relation to control group wage-earning categories, showed that on the first three items (like work, chance to do what you do best, and gives a feeling of accomplishment), those reporting wage-earning emphases also had the highest proportion, indicating the greatest satisfaction. On item one, 80 percent as contrast to 59 percent, item 2, 75 percent as contrast to 47 percent, item 3, 75 percent as contrast to 53 percent. In the last two items, variations in responses were smaller, but continued in the same direction.

Job Satisfaction II

The second measure of job satisfaction was the Job Descriptive Index, developed in the "Cornell Studies of Job Satisfaction: V. Scale Characteristics of the Job Descriptive Index," by Edwin A. Lock, Patricia C. Smith, *et al.* (mimeo). The definition of job satisfaction used by these researchers and accepted in this study is:

"A persistent affective state which arises in the worker as a function of the perceived characteristics of his job in relation to his frame of reference."

The Job Descriptive Index is a list of adjectives or descriptive phrases related to a specific area of the job. Respondents are asked to write a "y" beside an item if the item describes the particular aspect of his job, an "N" if the item did not describe that aspect, or a "?" if he could not decide.

Aspects of the job to which adjectives refer are "work," "Supervision," "People," "Pay," and "Promotions." The aspect "Promotion" was considered less relevant to satisfaction with teaching home economics and therefore was excluded. The other four areas were retained as developed, and appear on the last four pages of the questionnaire (see Appendix B, pp. 33-36). Although one or two adjectives or phrases were less relevant to the teaching situation, e.g., "Hot," these were retained.

For scoring a "Yes" to a positive item is weighted 3; "No" to a negative response is weighted 3; "?" to any item is weighted 1, since evidence indicated that it more frequently reflects some dissatisfaction. A "Yes" to a negative item is weighted 0, and a "no" to a positive item is weighted 0. Total score indicates the degree of satisfaction.

Estimated split-half internal consistencies for the scales, using a sample of 80 male employees, when corrected exceeded .80.

Development of the scales included a check for validity by correlating scale scores with an independent measure. The independent measure was a scale with five "Faces" ranging from happy to unhappy (frowning to smiling), previously shown to have convergent and discriminant validity. Correlations with response set partialled out ranged from .48 to .78. The scale measuring satisfaction with people was lowest at .48.

Results

Table 7.19 presents the variation in scale mean scores by participation category. Range of scores theoretically possible was as follows: work, 0-54, supervision, 0-54, adult relationships, 0-54, pay, 0-24.

Table 7.19 Mean Scores on Job Descriptive Index by Participation Category

Participation Category	N*	Job Descriptive Index Scores			
		Work	Supervision	Adult Relationships	Pay
		$\bar{X}$	$\bar{X}$	$\bar{X}$	$\bar{X}$
Leaders	7	42.4	48.1	46.5	15.9
Non-Participants	28	37.8	37.6	39.3	13.0
Experimental	79	39.9	42.9	44.8	15.3
Control	79	40.9	43.9	45.1	15.9

*In four computations of mean scores for the experimental and control groups, total number of cases was less than total number in each category, due to some incomplete responses. In no case was the N less than 75.

On the work satisfaction scale, scores ranged from 15 to 54; supervision, 6-54; satisfaction with adult relationships, 6-54, and satisfaction with pay, 1-24.

As indicated, mean scores for all categories on each scale are above the theoretical mean. Although differences are small, non-participants report lower satisfaction than any other respondents in all four areas. The experimental-group respondents consistently score slightly lower in satisfaction than do control-group respondents. Leaders consistently report slightly more satisfaction than any other category except on the scale measuring satisfaction with pay.

Mean scores on the Job Descriptive Index of fifteen innovators were computed also. Means were as follows: work, 39.8; supervision, 49.3; adult relationships, 44; pay index, 15.9. The means for supervision and pay were among the highest, whereas on work and adult relationships means ranked next to the lowest means derived.

The Job Descriptive Index data were analyzed further by developing three categories, high, middle, low satisfaction. The high and low categories were established to include as nearly as possible the first and fourth quartile; the middle included the 2nd and 3rd. Score ranges for each category were determined from the distribution of scores for all respondents.

The question guiding this analysis was: "Are some participation categories disproportionately represented in the high and low satisfaction categories?"

Table 7.20 reports the results on the work dimension scale.

Table 7.20 Number and Percent of Respondents in Participation Category by Work Category

Work Satisfaction Category	Total Population N = 193 Percent	Leaders 7 Percent	Non-Participants 28 Percent	Experimental 79 Percent	Control 79 Percent
High (45-54)	28.4	14.3	21.4	30.4	30.4
Middle (44-38)	45.2	85.7	42.9	40.5	46.8
Low (1-37)	26.4		35.7	29.1	22.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Leaders consistently report higher level of work satisfaction; only slight variations, probably due to chance exist between the experimental and control groups ($\chi^2 = 1.1$, 2 df n. sig.). Non-participants have the largest proportion in the low category.

Table 7.21 Number and Percent of Respondents in Participation Category by Supervision Category

Satisfaction with Supervision	Total Population N = 191 Percent	Leaders 7 Percent	Non-Participants 28 Percent	Experimental 77 Percent	Control 79 Percent
High (51-54)	30.4	42.9	10.7	33.8	32.9
Middle (39-50)	43.9	57.1	50.0	41.5	43
Low (1-38)	25.7		39.3	24.7	24.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Once again a disproportionate number of non-participants report lower satisfactions, and leaders report high satisfaction. Only small variations exist between the experimental and control groups.

Table 7.22 Number and Percent in Participation Category by Adult Relationships Category

Adult Relationships Category	Total Population N = 187 Percent	Leaders 7 Percent	Non-Participants 26 Percent	Experimental 75 Percent	Control 79 Percent
High (51-54)	29.4	14.3	26.9	33.3	27.8
Middle (41-50)	44.9	85.7	38.5	48.0	40.6
Low (1-40)	25.7		34.6	18.7	31.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Leaders are disproportionately in the middle and high categories. A disproportionate number of non-participants report lower satisfaction; to a slightly less degree so do control-group respondents. On this dimension, a smaller proportion of the experimental group appear in the low satisfaction category. Observable differences between the experimental and control groups could occur 20 times out of 100 by chance.
($X^2 = 3.3$ 2 df. n. sig.)

Table 7.23 Number and Percent in Participation Category by Pay Index Category

Satisfaction with Pay Category	Total Population N = 187 Percent	Leaders 7 Percent	Non-Participants 26 Percent	Experimental 77 Percent	Control 77 Percent
High (19-24)	24.6	28.6	11.5	31.2	40.3
Middle (13-18)	46.5	28.6	42.3	42.8	35.0
Low (1-12)	28.9	42.9	46.2	26.0	24.7
Total	100.0	100.1	100.0	100.0	100.0

Leaders and non-participants were disproportionately represented in the low satisfaction category, whereas control and experimental group respondents were disproportionately represented in the high satisfaction category. Observable differences between these two latter categories are not statistically significant.
($X^2 = .7$ 2 df)

Job Descriptive Index mean score data were examined in relation to wage-earning categories for both the experimental and control groups. Table 7.24 reports the results.

Table 7.24 Mean Scores on Job Descriptive Index of Experimental and Control Group Respondents by Wage-Earning Category

Wage-Earning Category	Job Descriptive Index Scores							
	N ¹	Work X	Supervision N	Supervision X	Adult N	Adult X	Pay N	Pay X
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	37	39.3	36	43.7	35	44.6	36	15.9
No Wage Earning	41	40.7	40	42.1	39	41.4	40	15.0
Total ²		39.9		42.9		44.8		15.3
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	44	41.2	44	45.5	44	45.3	44	17
No Wage Earning	34	41.0	34	41.7	34	43.0	34	13.4
Total		40.9		43.9		45.1		15.9

¹N's vary due to non-respondents on wage-earning emphases data as well as Job Descriptive Index data.

²N used in computation of total group means is from 79 to 75 due to some incomplete data.

Variations in mean scores between wage-earning categories in the experimental and control groups are quite consistently small. Further, mean scores for all categories exceeded the theoretical mean of the scale, i.e., 27 on work, supervision and adult indexes, and 12 for pay index.

Although differences in means are small, a consistent direction is evident, namely, that those in wage-earning categories report satisfaction equal to or slightly higher than the mean for the total experimental or control groups, whereas those reporting no wage-earning emphases consistently report satisfaction lower than the mean for each group. This direction is evident for mean score variations for three of the four indexes, work being the one area where no relationship is suggested.

Table 7.25 Number and Percent of Experimental-Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category by Work Index Category

Work Index Category	Total Population N = 193 Percent	Experimental Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (45-54)	28.4	11	29.7	13	31.7
Middle (44-38)	55.2	15	40.6	17	41.5
Low (1-37)	26.4	11	29.7	11	26.8
Total	100.0	37	100.0	41	100.0

$$\chi^2 = .0$$

Table 7.26 Number and Percent of Control-Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category by Work Index Category

Work Index Category	Total Population N = 193 Percent	Control Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (45-54)	28.4	14	31.8	9	26.5
Middle (44-38)	55.2	20	45.5	17	50.5
Low (1-37)	26.4	10	22.7	8	23.5
Total	100.0	44	100.0	34	100.0

As can be noted from Tables 7.25 and 7.26, variation in proportions in the two wage-earning categories appearing in high, middle and low categories on Work Satisfaction Index is small and due to chance. No trend was evident.

With reference to the satisfaction with supervision index, variations for both experimental and control groups were relatively slight and probably chance occurrences.

Table 7.27 Number and Percent of Experimental Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Categories by Supervision Index Category

Supervision Index Category	Total Population N = 191 Percent	Experimental Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (51-54)	30.4	13	36.1	12	30
Middle (39-50)	43.9	16	44.5	16	40
Low (1-38)	25.7	7	19.4	12	30
Total	100.0	36	100.0	40	100

$$\chi^2 = 1.12 \text{ n. sig.}$$

Table 7.28 Number and Percent of Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category by Supervision Index Category

Supervision Index Category	Total Population N = 191 Percent	Control Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (51-54)	30.4	15	34.1	10	29.4
Middle (39-50)	43.9	20	45.4	14	41.2
Low (1-38)	25.7	9	20.5	10	29.4
Total	100.0	44	100.0	34	100.0

An examination of Tables 7.27 and 7.28 show that in both experimental and control groups, those reporting wage-earning emphases consistently have proportions in the high and middle satisfactions categories, which exceed the proportions for the total population and the control group.

On the satisfaction with adult relationships index, those reporting wage earning in the experimental group were disproportionately represented in the high category, whereas those reporting no wage earning more consistently approximated the total population.

Table 7.29 Number and Percent of Experimental Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category by Adult Index Category

Adult Index Category	Total Population N = 187 Percent	Experimental Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (51-54)	29.4	14	40.0	11	28.2
Middle (41-50)	44.9	15	42.9	20	51.3
Low (1-40)	25.7	6	17.1	8	20.5
Total	100.0	35	100.0	39	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1.14$ (2 df) n. sig.

Table 7.30 Number and Percent of Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category by Adult Index Category

Pay Index Category	Total Population N = 187 Percent	Control Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (51-54)	29.4	15	34.1	7	20.6
Middle (41-50)	44.9	16	36.4	15	44.1
Low (1-40)	25.7	13	29.5	12	35.3
Total		44	100.0	34	100.0

Observable differences were not statistically significant, however. Within the control group differences were smaller and probably due to chance; however, a disproportionate number of those reporting wage earning did appear in the high satisfaction categories, whereas those reporting no wage earning had a disproportionate number in the low satisfaction category.

Relative to pay as an indication of satisfaction variations between wage-earning categories in the experimental group, were small.

Table 7.31 Number and Percent of Experimental Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category by Pay Index Category

Pay Index Category	Total Population N = 187 Percent	Experimental Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (19-24)	24.6	12	33.3	12	30.0
Middle (13-18)	46.5	16	44.5	17	42.5
Low (1-12)	28.9	8	22.2	11	27.5
Total	100.0	36	100.0	40	100.0

Table 7.32 Number and Percent of Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category by Pay Index Category

Pay Index Category	Total Population N = 187 Percent	Control Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (19-24)	24.6	18	40.9	12	37.5
Middle (13-18)	46.5	19	43.2	8	25.0
Low (1-12)	28.9	7	15.9	12	37.5
Total	100.0	44	100.0	32	100.0

$$X^2 = 5.2 \quad 2df \quad .10 \text{ sign.}$$

Both reflected the tendency of the experimental group to be more satisfied with pay. In the control group, a disproportionate number of those reporting wage earning were in the high satisfaction category, whereas those reporting no wage earning were disproportionately represented in both the high and low category with a surprisingly low proportion in the middle. Observable differences were not quite statistically significant at the .05 level, but are greater than .10.

Job Descriptive Index data were analyzed in one other context, namely, the fifteen innovators who appeared in the control group, which was drawn to be representative. The rationale being, that if job satisfaction is related to willingness to innovate, then examination of scores for this select group would constitute a more rigorous test.

Table 7.33 Number and Percent of Innovators in Control Group by Work Index Category

Work Index Category	N = 15	Innovators Percent	Total Population N = 193	Percent
High (45-54)	(3)	20.0		28.4
Middle (44-38)	(8)	53.3		55.2
Low (1-37)	(4)	26.7		26.4
Total	15	100.0		100.0

Table 7.34 Number and Percent of Innovators in Control Group by Supervision Category

Supervision Category	N = 15	Innovators Percent	Total Population N = 191	Percent
High (51-54)	(7)	46.7		30.4
Middle (39-50)	(7)	46.7		43.9
Low (1-38)	(1)	6.6		25.7
Total	(15)	100.0		100.0

Table 7.35 Number and Percent of Innovators in Control Group by Adult Index Category

Adult Index Category	N = 15	Innovators Percent	Total Population N = 187	Percent
High (51-54)	(6)	40		29.4
Middle (41-50)	(3)	20		44.9
Low (1-40)	(6)	40		25.7
Total	(15)	100		100.0

Table 7.36 Number and Percent of Innovators in Control Group by Pay Index Category

Pay Index Category	N = 15	Innovators Percent	Total Population N = 187	Percent
High (19-24)	(6)	40.0		24.6
Middle (13-18)	(5)	33.3		46.5
Low (1-12)	(4)	26.7		28.9
Total	(15)	100.0		100.0

As can be noted, just as the work dimension did not differentiate between participation categories, innovators are distributed throughout the three satisfaction categories in a close approximation of that for the total sample.

Satisfaction with supervision, however, seems greater for innovators than for all respondents, since 93.4 percent are in the middle or high category as contrast to 74.3 in the total population.

With reference to satisfaction with adult relationships, the distribution is bimodal, with the larger proportions being either high or low, rather than being normally distributed as for the total population.

Variation from the total population is observable on the pay satisfaction index, with a distribution slightly skewed toward high satisfaction, whereas the distribution for the total approximates a normal distribution between categories.

In sum, on the first five-item scale of job satisfaction, the control group was somewhat different from the experimental group, in that a larger proportion of the control group consistently reported higher job satisfaction.

Evidence for both the five-item scale and the Job Descriptive Index of three dimensions of the job, suggested that a positive relationship exists between higher job satisfaction and wage-earning emphases.

Work Orientation

Respondents were asked to indicate the three most important reasons for their working. This was an unstructured question in order to free respondents to express their personal views. Responses were examined and three categories emerged: 1) economic gain; 2) personal satisfaction; 3) service to others.

In citing their first reason, for the participation categories of leaders, non-participants, and control group, there was almost an equal number indicating economic gain and personal satisfaction. Relatively few, never more than four indicated service to others, with the larger proportion (16 percent) from the non-participants. In the experimental group, 43 (55.8 percent) cited economic gain as to 30 (39 percent) citing personal satisfaction.

Table 7.37 First Reason for Working by Participation Category

	Economic Gain		Personal Satisfaction		Service To Others		Total	
	N	Percent*	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	3	42.9	3	42.9	1	14.3	7	100.1
Non-Participants	11	44.0	10	40.0	4	16.0	25	100
Experimental	43	55.8	30	39.0	4	5.2	77	100
Control	35	46.7	39	52.0	1	1.3	75	100
Total	92	50.0	82	44.6	10	5.4	184	100

*Based on N responding

When asked for a second reason, the number indicating personal satisfaction and service to others increased; for the latter however, never more than 6 gave this reason. Larger proportions of leaders and non-participants cited service to others as the second reason than did either of the other two categories.

Table 7.38 Second Reason for Working by Participation Category

	Economic Gain		Personal Satisfaction		Service To Others		Total	
	N	Percent*	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders			5	71.4	2	28.6	7	100
Non-Participants	11	42.3	10	38.5	5	19.2	26	100
Experimental	25	33.8	43	58.1	6	8.1	74	100
Control	29	38.7	40	53.3	6	8.0	75	100
Total	65	35.7	98	53.8	19	10.4	182	99.9

*Based on N responding

The number of no responses increased when asked for a third reason. Personal satisfaction was the most frequently cited reason by those responding.

Table 7.39 Third Reason for Working by Participation Category

	Economic Gain		Personal Satisfaction		Service To Others		Total	
	N	Percent*	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	2	28.6	4	57.1	1	14.3	7	100
Non-Participants	6	37.5	8	50.0	2	12.5	16	100
Experimental	17	27.4	40	64.5	5	8.1	62	100
Control	17	27.9	33	54.1	11	18.0	61	100
Total	42	28.8	85	58.2	19	13.0	146	100

*Based on N responding

Variations were slight between the experimental and control groups, with a larger proportion of the control designating service to others than did experimental group respondents.

In an effort to assess the extent to which economic needs motivated teachers to work, each was asked to indicate what action she would take if all economic needs of the family were met. Table 7.40 indicates the results.

Table 7.40 Hypothetical Action if all Economic Needs were met by Participation Category

	Quit Work		Work Fulltime		Work Parttime		Other		Total	
	N	Percent*	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Leaders	2	28.6	4	57.1	1	14.3			7	100
Non-Participants	4	14.8	10	37.0	12	44.4	1	3.7	27	99.9
Experimental	5	6.8	43	58.1	23	31.1	3	4.1	74	100.1
Control	5	6.6	48	63.2	19	25.0	4	5.3	76	100.1
Total	16	8.7	105	57.1	55	29.9	8	4.3	184	100.0

*Based on N responding

As indicated, relatively small proportions would quit work; experimental and control groups, approximately 6 percent; non-participants, 14 percent; and leaders 28 percent. With the non-participants being the single exception, with 37 percent, in excess of fifty percent of the other categories would continue to work full time. For 25 percent and more of the experimental and control groups, and fully 44 percent of the non-participants part-time work would be preferred. One of the leaders expressed preference for part-time work also.

In conclusion, for these teachers there is no doubt that economic gain is an important component of their motivation to teach; however, other components are important for in excess of 80 percent of all categories, except leaders.

When data were examined in relation to experimental and control group wage-earning categories, it was found that a larger proportion of those reporting no wage-earning emphases indicated economic gain as the first reason for working, whereas those reporting wage earning in the experimental group were more evenly divided between economic gain and personal satisfaction and service to others. Of those reporting wage earning in the control group, 58 percent cited personal satisfaction as the first reason for working as compared to 42 percent of those reporting no wage earning.

Table 7.41 First Reason for Working by Experimental and Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category

	Economic Gain		Personal Satisfaction		Service To Others		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>								
Wage Earning	18	48.6	16	43.2	3	8.1	37	99.9
No Wage Earning	25	64.1	13	33.3	1	2.6	39	100.0
No Response			1				1	100.0
Total	43	55.8	30	39.0	4	5.2	77	100.0
<u>Control</u>								
Wage Earning	17	39.5	25	58.1	1	2.3	43	99.9
No Wage Earning	18	58.1	13	41.9			31	100.0
No Response			1				1	100.0
Total	35	46.7	39	52.0	1	1.3	75	100.0
Ex. X^2	(Ec. gain and Personal Sat.) = 3.17 (1 df) sign. <.10							
Con. X^2	(Ec. gain and Personal Sat.) = 3.58 (1 df) sign. <.10							

Table 7.42 Second Reason for Working by Experimental and Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category

	Economic Gain		Personal Satisfaction		Service To Others		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>										
Wage Earning	13	36.1	20	55.6	2	5.6	1	2.8	36	100
No Wage Earning	11	25.5	23	57.5	4	10.0	2	5.0	40	100
No Response	1	100							1	100
Total	25	32.5	43	55.8	6	7.8	3	3.9	77	100
<u>Control</u>										
Wage Earning	15	34.9	25	58.1	3	7.0			43	100
No Wage Earning	14	42.4	15	45.5	3	9.1	1	3.0	33	100
Total	29	38.2	40	52.6	6	7.9	1	1.3	76	100

Table 7.43 Third Reason for Working by Experimental and Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category

	Economic Gain		Personal Satisfaction		Service To Others		No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>										
Wage Earning	9	24.3	20	54.1	2	5.4	6	16.2	37	100
No Wage Earning	8	20.0	19	47.5	3	7.5	10	25.0	40	100
No Response			1	100					1	100
Total	17	21.8	40	51.3	5	6.4	16	20.5	78	100
<u>Control</u>										
Wage Earning	11	25.0	17	38.6	7	15.9	9	20.5	44	100
No Wage Earning	6	17.6	16	47.1	4	11.8	8	23.5	34	100
Total	17	21.8	33	42.3	11	14.1	17	21.8	78	100

Chi-squares were computed between categories in the experimental group between economic gain and personal satisfaction categories. $X^2 = 3.17$ (1 df) sign $< .10$ and did not quite attain the .05 level of significance. Similarly, X^2 computed between the same categories in the control was equal to 3.58 1 df sign $< .10$.

Responses of second and third reasons did not vary greatly between categories in groups.

Table 7.44 Hypothetical Action if all Economic Needs were met by Experimental and Control Group Wage-Earning Category

	Quit Work		Full-time		Part-time		Other and No Response		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<u>Experimental</u>										
Wage Earning	4	10.8	20	54.1	12	32.4	1	2.7	37	100
No Wage Earning	1	2.4	23	56.1	10	24.4	7	17.1	41	100
No Response					1	100	1	100		
Total	5	6.3	43	54.4	23	29.1	8	10.1	78	99.9
<u>Control</u>										
Wage Earning	2	4.5	28	63.6	12	27.3	2	4.6	44	100
No Wage Earning	3	8.8	19	55.9	7	20.6	5	14.7	34	100
Total	5	6.3	47	60.8	19	24.1	7	8.9	78	100

Variations in proportions indicating hypothetical action to be taken in event all economic needs were met, were small and most probably chance occurrences.

Open-Closed Belief Systems and Risk-Taking Propensities

The last two social-psychological variables to be considered are open and closed belief systems, as measured by Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, and risk-taking propensities as measured by Williams' Job Preferences Inventory.

Open-Closed Belief Systems

Rogers¹³ in an extensive review of research pertaining to the diffusion of innovations stated:

"Several investigations indicate that earlier adopters are less dogmatic, less rigid, and more rational than later adopters. Rogers (1957b) found that more innovative farmers scored lower on a dogmatism scale than on a rigidity scale. Copp (1956) found in a study of Kansas cattlemen that innovators had greater mental flexibility than laggards. Dean and others (1958), Emery and Oeser (1958), Bemiller (1960), and Coughenour (1960b) found that more innovative farmers utilized more rational means to reach their goals. Burdige (1961), Goldstein and Eichhorn (1961), Rogers and Burdige (1962), and Copp (1956) concluded that laggards were relatively more work-oriented; that is, they viewed work as a goal in itself rather than as a means to other ends. Sutherland (1959) found that laggard cotton-spinning firms regarded the future only in terms of the short run, and claimed the best policy was to simply hang on to ideas presently on hand."

On the basis of these findings, a shortened form of the Dogmatism Scale developed by Rokeach¹⁴ was included. The shortened form is ten statements from the longer form of forty items. In order to obtain some specific data on the correlation between scores on the long and short form, the short form was administered to 45 undergraduate students in home economic classes. Two weeks later, the long form was administered. The format of questions and responses are similar on both. A statement such as, "Fundamentally the world we live in is a pretty lonely place" is made. Respondents are asked to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement by responding with a +3 (I agree very much), +2, +1, -1, -2, -3 (I disagree very much).

Scores were derived by adding a constant (4) to eliminate negative numbers and summing responses.

For the forty-five undergraduate students, scores on the short and long forms correlated .73.

A split half reliability check on the long form corrected by the Spearman Brown Formula, yielded .93. Similar computation of odd and evens on the short form yielded a corrected coefficient of .59. Reliability for the short form was computed also on a test-retest basis, using scores on the short form and the score for the same ten items administered as a part of the long form two weeks later. The r obtained equaled .674.

¹³Rogers, op. cited., p. 178.

¹⁴Milton Rokeach, The Open and Closed Mind, Basic Books, Inc., New York, 1960.

Efforts to validate the Dogmatism Scale used the method of known groups and is described fully in Rokeach's work.¹⁵

Results

Table 7.45 reports the mean dogmatism scores.

Table 7.45 Mean Scores on Dogmatism Scale by Participation Category

Participation Category	Dogmatism Scores	
	N	$\bar{X}$
Leaders	7	31.1
Non-Participants	28	37.8
Experimental	79	37.5
Control	79	37.0
Total	193	37.1

On the short form of ten items, the highest possible score is 70; the lowest 10; the theoretical mean 35. The total range of scores was 12 to 60 with a mean of 37. Thus, means for all participation categories approximate the theoretical mean. Leaders score lowest on dogmatism, indicating more open-belief systems. The relatively slight differences may be a result of the smaller number.

A comparison with mean scores on the short form of students in the Graduate School of Social Work and Graduate School of Education¹, shows considerable similarity, as noted in Table 7.46

Table 7.46 Mean Scores of Comparison Group on Dogmatism Scale

Comparison Groups	Dogmatism Scores	
	N	$\bar{X}$
Home Economics Teachers	193	37.1
G.S.E. Women Students	17	34.4
Graduate School of Social Work*	13	34.2
Home Economics Undergraduates	44	35.2

*Women Students

¹Data provided by Bernard Indik, 1969

¹⁵ Op. cit. pp. 105-108.

Mean Dogmatism Scores were analyzed in relation to Experimental and Control Group Wage-Earning Categories. Table 7.47 presents the results.

Table 7.47 Mean Scores on Dogmatism Scale of Experimental and Control Group Respondents by Wage-Earning Category

Wage Earning Category	Dogmatism Scores	
	N	$\bar{X}$
<u>Experimental</u>		
Wage Earning	37	38.2
No Wage Earning	41	36.8
Total	78	37.5
<u>Control</u>		
Wage Earning	44	38.3
No Wage Earning	34	34.9
Total	78	37.0

As evident, variation in scores is small. Of interest, is the consistency with which mean scores of those reporting wage-earning emphases, slightly exceed the mean for each group indicative of more closed belief systems, whereas those reporting no wage-earning emphases are slightly less than group means.

Data on dogmatism were analyzed further by establishing categories of high, middle and low. The boundaries of each category were determined by the distribution of all respondents, and were so defined as to approximate the first and last quartile, i.e., high and low respectively with the 2nd and 3rd quartiles constituting the middle category. Using these categories, data were analyzed for wage-earning categories in the experimental and control groups. The question to be answered was: "Are those reporting wage-earning emphases disproportionately represented in high or low dogmatism categories?"

Table 7.48 Number and Percent of Experimental Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Category by Dogmatism Category

Dogmatism Category	Total Population		Experimental			
	N = 193	Percent	Wage Earning N	Percent	No Wage Earning N	Percent
High (44-up)		21.2	8	21.6	7	17.1
Middle (34-43)		43.5	18	48.6	18	43.9
Low (0-33)		35.2	11	29.7	16	39.0
Total		99.9	37	99.9	41	100.0

$\chi^2 = .81$ 2 df n. sign.

Observable differences are small and not statistically significant. The largest difference between the two categories exists in the largest proportion of those reporting no wage-earning emphases being in the low dogmatism category.

Table 7.49 Number and Percent of Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Categories by Dogmatism Category

Dogmatism Category	Total Population		Control			
	N = 193	Percent	Wage Earning N	Percent	No Wage Earning N	Percent
High (44-up)		21.2	14	31.8	4	11.8
Middle (34-43)		43.5	15	34.1	18	52.9
Low (0-33)		35.2	15	34.1	12	35.3
Total		99.9	44	100.0	34	100.0

$\chi^2 = 5.04$, 2 df. sign. .10

Those reporting wage-earning emphases are almost evenly distributed among the three dogmatism categories with 68 percent in the middle and low categories; in contrast 88 percent of those reporting no wage-earning emphases are in the two lower dogmatism categories.

One final analysis was undertaken to provide more information pertaining to the question, "Do those who innovate tend towards more open belief system?" The mean score for the fifteen innovators is 33.5; lower than all participation categories except for leaders (31.1). When examined in relation to Dogmatism categories, the following resulted.

Table 7.50 Number and Percent of Innovators by Dogmatism Category

Dogmatism Category	Total Population N = 193 Percent		Innovators N Percent	
High (44-up)		21.2	2	13.4
Middle (34-43)		43.5	5	33.3
Low (0-33)		35.2	8	53.3
Total		99.9	15	100.0

As can be noted, more than one-half of the innovators are in the Low Dogmatism category, thus supporting the thesis that those who implement new ideas have more open belief systems. It is well to keep in mind that these teachers had been among the first in the state to implement occupational programs in home economics, thus in view of time can legitimately be considered innovators. Participants, in the inservice workshops conducted as the stimulus in this study to innovate, who modify curriculum, would at best be a part of the early majority (in Rogers category system) rather than innovators. Consequently, it could be hypothesized that these would be more dogmatic than innovators, but less dogmatic than non-adopters or laggards. The follow-up study will provide more adequate testing of this hypothesis.

Risk-Taking Propensities

The decision to include a measure of risk-taking propensities was based on several considerations. For one, Rogers reported on the basis of a number of studies reviewed that innovators are "venturesome."¹⁶ The innovator, he continued, values the rash, the daring, and the risking. Secondly, the teacher who actively seeks to extend a home economics program to include wage-earning emphases may, depending upon the situation, be perceived as taking risks. The perceived risks may vary from situation to situation and teacher to teacher. For example, if she presently gains much satisfaction from her teaching, changing the focus of her instruction may jeopardize this satisfaction; on the other side, it may increase her satisfaction. There is the possibility of either and hence some risk.

Similar possibilities exist with reference to the degree of success achieved by students. To develop new objectives, to initiate new courses to fill those objectives, is to create the possibilities of a successful program or one which may fall far short of achieving the objectives. In view of the element of risk involved in change and the attributes of innovators, a measure of risk-taking propensities was included.

¹⁶Rogers, op. cited, p. 169.

The scale selected for use was developed by Williams¹⁷ for use in an industrial setting. The scale consists of eight items with forced choice between two possible responses. One of the two responses expresses a propensity for taking risks; the second expresses seeking security. (Appendix B, p.30.)

Williams stated the conceptual framework for developing the scale in these words:

.... a person's orientation toward taking risks has been and will be referred to in terms of his propensity to take risks. The concept of propensity implies a potential inclination for or attraction to certain activities and goals. Propensity refers to an underlying and pervasive frame of reference. In this case, a propensity for risk-taking would be seen as a fixed and rather permanent orientation; it is seen as operating in any situation where an individual is faced with a choice of alternatives that can be assessed as more or less risk laden. We assume that such an orientation is a major facet of the individual's personality....¹⁸

The similarity of Williams' thesis, to a question to which an answer is sought in this study, is reflected in one of the hypothesis he chose to test, i.e.:

Individuals who are seen as most efficient in effecting change will indicate a greater propensity to take risks than will those who are seen as less efficient in effecting change.¹⁹

The scale was developed using Guttman scaling procedures and met generally accepted scaling standards. The "reproducibility coefficient" for two independent samples of 100 was .89 and .91, according to Williams.²⁰

The hypothesis stated above was supported by the data. Persons within the organization studied who had major responsibility for change had an average risk-taking score of 7.7 (highest possible score 8). Those who had major responsibility for change, who were rated as satisfactory but not superior, had an average score of 5.8. With reference to intermediate personnel, namely, supervisors, Williams found that those rated most efficient had a mean risk propensity score of 5.77, whereas those rated as low in efficiency in handling change had a mean of 4.62. The differences was significant at the .02 level.²¹

¹⁷Lawrence K. Williams, The Measurement of Risk-Taking Propensity in an Industrial Setting, Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1960.

¹⁸Ibid. p. 12-13.

¹⁹Ibid. p. 15.

²⁰Ibid. p. 87.

²¹Ibid. p. 55.

In another line of analysis, a rank correlation between scale score and desire to experience another change within the organization was .96. A chi-square test of this relationship was found to be significant at the .01 level.

Williams also examined variation in risk-taking propensities between men and women. He found that generally mean scores for men are higher than those for women on the same level jobs. As level of job increased, however, risk-taking scores tended to increase also for both men and women, with the differences narrowing. Mean scores computed separately for women ranged from approximately 2.5 to 4.1.

Analysis

Risk-taking propensity data were examined in several ways, which include computation of mean total scores for various categories of respondents; analysis of proportional differences between categories selecting risk-taking response for each item and delineation of high, middle, and low risk-taking categories.

Results

Table 7.51 Mean Total Risk-Taking Propensity Scores by Participation Category

Participation Category	N	Risk-Taking Propensity Mean Total Score
Leaders	7	6
Non-Participants	28	5.4
Experimental	78*	4.6
Control	78*	4.8
Total	191	4.8

* 1 non-respondent in each category

Considered in relation to Williams' data, home economics teachers have a mean risk-taking score which is high in comparison to scores for women at lower grade jobs, and approximate scores of women in higher grade jobs which may resemble teaching more closely. Leaders have the highest mean risk-taking score; non-participants rank second, control group, third; and experimental group, last.

Examination of responses to each item indicated that leaders consistently ranked first with the largest proportion selecting the response indicative of risk-taking. Non-participants consistently ranked second, with the

single exception of Item 7 (a job that is constantly changing) on which the proportion of control group respondents exceeded non-participants. On four of the eight items, proportions of control group respondents selecting the risk-taking alternative exceeded the experimental group, and as indicated ranked second on Item 7. On Items 1, 3, and 5, the proportion of experimental group respondents selecting the risk-taking alternative exceeded that of the control group. One of the observable differences between the experimental and control groups attained statistical significance, as indicated by chi-square tests. Due to the small number of cases, differences between other categories were not tested for statistical significance.

Specific proportions are reported in Table 7.52.

Table 7.52 Proportion of Respondents Selecting Risk-Taking Alternative of Item by Participation Category

Risk Taking Item	N =	Participation Category			
		Percent Selecting Risk-Taking Alternative			
		Leaders	Non-Participants	Experimental	Control
		7	28	79	79
1. Own Direction		85.7	75.0	78.5	72.2
2. Many Decisions		85.7	85.7	77.2	82.3
3. General Directions		85.7	82.1	64.6	58.2
4. Pressed to Limits of Ability		28.6	25.0	16.5	25.3
5. Final Authority		85.7	82.1	67.1	62.0
6. Success or Failure		85.7	67.9	48.1	49.4
7. Constant Change		85.7	82.1	69.6*	84.8*
8. Exciting Job		57.1	39.3	34.2	36.7

* $\chi^2 = 3.84$ 1 df at .05 level

As is evident from the table, approximately three-quarters or more of respondents in all categories preferred a job where "they are on their own," and "make many decisions themselves."

Larger differences occur between leaders, non-participants, and the experimental and control groups, with smaller proportions of the two latter categories indicating a preference for having very general instructions and

being the final authority. Whereas a sizable proportional majority of leaders (85.7), and non-participants (67.9) indicated preference for a job where they could be either highly successful or a complete failure, slightly under half of experimental (48.1) and control group (49.4) respondents did so. Experimental group respondents differed more from the remaining three categories, in that only 69.6 percent expressed preference for a job that is constantly changing, whereas over 80 percent of respondents in other categories did so. The difference observed is statistically significant at the .05 level. Only of leaders, do over half express preference for an exciting though potentially short-term job, with slightly over one-third of other categories doing so. Comparatively low proportions of all categories express preference for a job which presses them to the limits of ability.

Understanding of risk-taking propensities of home economists is extended by a comparison with other populations.

Table 7.53. Percent of Home Economists Selecting Risk-Taking Alternatives of Item as Compared with Respondents in Other Occupations*

Item	N = Home Economist 193 Percent	Acc't Employees 701 Percent	Sales Personnel 230 Percent	Acc't Supervisory 57 Percent
1. Own Direction	75.6	70	76	80
2. Many Decisions	80.8	71	81	90
3. General Directions	65.3	46	56	67
4. Pressed to Limits of Ability	21.8	16	23	37
5. Final Authority	67.9	57	63	85
6. Success or Failure	52.8	44	44	65
7. Constant Change	78.2	55	54	76
8. Exciting Job	36.8	16	16	20

*Williams, p. 39-40

Generally, risk-taking propensities of home economists as an occupational group more closely resemble sales personnel. In proportions expressing preference for general instructions, constant change, and an exciting job, home economists more closely resemble accounting supervisors.

Having examined data for respondents by participation categories, data were analyzed in relation to wage-earning categories. The question to be answered, "Do respondents reporting wage-earning emphases differ significantly in risk-taking propensities from those reporting no wage-earning emphases?"

With mean total scale scores as the indicator, note the following:

Table 7.54 Mean Risk-Taking Propensity Scores of Experimental and Control Group Respondents by Wage-Earning Categories

	Risk-Taking Propensity Scores	
	N	Mean
<u>Experimental</u>		
Wage Earning	37	4.9
No Wage Earning	41	4.4
<u>Control</u>		
Wage Earning	44	4.5
No Wage Earning	34	5.1

Differences between categories as reflected in mean scores were very slight, with no consistent direction.

High, middle, and low categories were defined with the high and low categories approximating the highest and lowest quartiles, respectively of all respondents.

Table 7.55 Number and Percent of Experimental Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Categories by Risk-Taking Propensity Categories

Risk-Taking Category	Total Population N = 191 Percent	Experimental Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (7-8)	18.8	7	18.9	6	15
Middle (4-6)	59.1	22	59.5	23	57.5
Low (1-3)	22	8	21.6	11	27.5
Total	99.9	37	100.0	40	100.0

Distributions for both categories vary slightly from that for the total population, and do not differ significantly.

Table 7.56 Number and Percent of Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Categories by Risk-Taking Propensity Category

Risk-Taking Category	Total Population N = 191 Percent	Control Group			
		Wage Earning		No Wage Earning	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
High (7-8)	18.8	5	11.6	8	23.5
Middle (4-6)	59.1	23	53.4	20	58.8
Low (1-3)	22	15	34.9	6	17.6
Total	99.9	43	99.9	34	99.9

$$\chi^2 = 3.84 \quad 2 \text{ df n. sig.}$$

Respondents reporting no wage-earning emphasis are distributed among risk-taking propensity categories in approximately the same proportions as all respondents, whereas the distribution of those reporting wage-earning emphasis show a larger proportion in the low risk-taking category. Observable differences do not attain statistical significance at the .05 probability level, as indicated.

An examination of risk-taking propensity data for fifteen innovators in the control group, i.e., teachers of occupation courses, indicated that one-third of the innovators were categorized as low risk-takers (score range 1-3), whereas three-fifths were in the middle category (score range 6-4), with the remaining respondents (6.7 percent) in the high risk-taking category. In comparison with all respondents, more innovators are in the low and middle categories, with a very small proportion in the high risk-taking category.

The percent of experimental and control group respondents in wage-earning categories selecting risk-taking alternatives to each item are reported in the following table.

Table 7.57 Percent of Experimental and Control Group Respondents in Wage-Earning Categories Selecting Risk-Taking Alternatives by Item

Risk-Taking Scale Item	Experimental		Control	
	Wage Earning N = 37 Percent	No Wage Earning 41 Percent	Wage Earning 44 Percent	No Wage Earning 34 Percent
1. Almost Always on my Own	81.1	75.6	63.6	82.4
2. Make Many Decisions	86.6	68.3	77.3	88.2
3. General Instructions	73.0	56.1	47.7*	70.6*
4. Pressed to Limit of my Abilities	24.3	9.8	27.3	23.5
5. Am Final Authority	67.6	68.3	56.8	67.6
6. High Successful or Complete Failure	45.9	48.8	47.7	50
7. Constantly Changing	75.7	63.4	84.1	85.3
8. Exciting though Insecure	32.4	34.1	34.1	41.2

* $\chi^2 = 3.78$ 1 df .05

Although no observable differences attained statistical significance at the .05 level, seemingly contradictory evidence appears concerning a positive relationship between high risk-taking propensity and reporting wage-earning emphases. Note that in the experimental group on all but three items (5, 6, and 8), those reporting wage-earning also select risk-taking responses in greater proportions than those reporting no wage earning. On items 5, 6, and 8, differences between categories are smaller than for the remaining five items.

The relationship is just the reverse for control group respondents. For those reporting no wage-earning emphases in greater proportion on all but item 4, select the risk-taking alternatives.

Evidence relative to the relationship to risk-taking propensities and wage-earning emphases in home economics, has raised more questions than have been answered. One possible explanation of the seemingly contradictory results is that once a minimum risk-taking propensity exists, it ceases to be an impediment to change. However, over and above that minimum, other factors have greater influence on whether change will be initiated. Data from the follow-

up study, which will make possible a more rigorous categorization of respondents on the basis of changing or not changing curriculum, may be more conclusive.

Summary

Selected socio-psychological variables were self-perception as an opinion leader; self-evaluation of teaching effectiveness; job satisfaction, both as intrinsic and in terms of four dimensions of the work situation; work orientation; open-closed belief systems; and risk-taking propensities.

Research questions were presented and measurements described. A summary of findings relative to each variable follows.

Self-Perception as an Opinion Leader

All categories of respondents had mean scores exceeding the theoretical mean of 3. Leaders and control group respondents had higher mean scores than did the experimental group and non-participants.

Variations between wage-earning categories were small, but in the direction of a positive relationship between higher self-perception as an opinion leader and reporting wage-earning emphases for both the experimental and control groups.

Self-Evaluation of Effectiveness as a Teacher

Most teachers rate themselves high on teaching effectiveness with a median of 42 out of a possible 50. The experimental and control groups did not differ significantly. Data for the control group were suggestive of a positive relationship between high self-rating of teaching effectiveness and reporting wage-earning emphases.

Job Satisfaction I

Responses to the five-item job satisfaction scale, showed all respondents scored well over (21.8) the theoretical mean of 12.5 on a 25-point scale, thus indicating high-job satisfaction. Evidence supports the hypothesis that a positive relationship exists between higher-job satisfaction (relative to others within these samples), and reporting wage-earning emphases. Variations were found between the control and experimental groups, in that the former consistently had a higher proportion reporting higher satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction II

The Job Descriptive Index measured satisfaction in four areas of the job: work, supervision, adult relationships, and pay. On the first three areas, mean scores for all categories were 10 or more points above the theoretical scale mean, indicating high satisfaction. The control group consistently had slightly higher mean scores than did the experimental group.

Evidence supported a positive relationship between job satisfaction in all job dimensions except work and reporting wage-earning emphasis.

Work Orientation

Analysis of reasons for working found economic gain and personal satisfaction most frequently cited. The experimental and control groups differed slightly, with a larger proportion of the former citing economic gain, whereas the larger proportion of the control group specified personal satisfaction.

Over eighty percent of all respondents indicated that they would continue working full or part time, even if all economic needs of the family were met. Thus, for a large proportion work has an intrinsic value over and above the economic consideration.

Evidence suggests a positive relationship between citing personal satisfaction as the first reason for working and reporting wage-earning emphases.

Open-Closed Belief Systems

A short form of Rokeach's scale to measure dogmatism was used as an indicator of the type of belief systems of respondents. Analysis of mean scores found negligible variation between the experimental, control, and non-participant groups.

Variations in mean scores were slight for both experimental and control group wage-earning categories, but were consistently in the direction of higher dogmatism associated with reporting wage-earning emphases. Data for a small group of innovators showed a much larger proportion categorized as low on dogmatism. The explanation for this variance in direction may be linked with the fact that respondents in the experimental and control group wage-earning categories would more accurately be labeled as "early majority" or "majority" adopters rather than innovators. Further, since not all home economists view wage-earning emphases favorably, those who do may need a certain "closed mindedness" to alternative view points to persist in the face of resistance and possibly unfavorable attitudes. The follow-up study will provide a more rigorous test of the relationship and more information relative to an adequate explanation.

Risk-Taking Propensities

Risk-taking propensities were measured by an eight-item forced choice Guttman-type scale. Mean scores for the experimental and control groups were close to the theoretical mean of 4. Non-participants and leaders had higher risk-taking mean scores. Data pertaining to any relationship between risk-taking propensities and reporting wage-earning emphases were inconclusive.

In conclusion, the follow-up study in process will re-examine the relationship of these variables to modifying curriculum when the latter can be ascertained with greater accuracy.

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APPENDIX A

SESSION 1

ORIENTATION AND ORGANIZATION

1. Introductions
Interview the person next to you and then introduce to the group. (25 min.)
2. Distribute names and addresses of each participant and leader, and calendar of topics and dates.
3. Overview of total workshop (10 min.)
 - a. General background information
Session 1, women workers
Session 2, students with special needs
 - b. What is HERO, and how do each of us decide if it is relevant to my situation?

Sessions 1, 2, 3
 - c. How does one proceed to incorporate a wage-earning emphasis in home economics secondary programs?

Sessions 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7
4. Mechanics: Dates of meetings (10-15 min.)
Make a point of clarifying arrangements for February 22nd when many schools are closed (perhaps the one in which workshop is held).

What if weather is perilous for driving?

Home phone numbers - is a chain-call system desirable?

Time: Are the hours designated acceptable or is another open for all and preferred by most?

Refreshments: ☐yes ☐no How?
5. Content: Women Workers
Highlights from materials
Flannel boards presentation of facts
 - a. Increase in numbers working.
 - b. Life cycle in relation to gainful and useful employment.
 - c. Projections for the future.
 - d. Motivation for work - why? Discussion by group.
 - (1) Money
 - (2) Personal satisfaction
 - (3) Relationship between education, working, and earnings
 - (4) Low incomes of women heads of households (many in poverty category)
 - e. What jobs?
 - f. What about New Jersey?

Discussion lead in: In the past week what workers have you seen engaged in work which draws on home economics content?

Identify areas of HERO

6. Distribute materials on women, workers, manpower administration pamphlet. "WOMANPOWER POLICIES FOR THE 1970's." State Department mimeo on HERO areas and clusters.

7. Summarize:

a. Data on women workers indicate that if trends continue, girls should be prepared for gainful employment while usefully employed. (Define words.)

b. With more women working, more services and goods previously produced at home will be purchased. More jobs can be expected to develop in these areas. Some of these are Home Economics Related Occupations.

Use HERO "3d" sandwich -

1) Food (bottom); 2) Institutional, bucket; 3) (Child Care) Bottle; 4) Clothing Related (dress)

Conclude: Next week we will consider students, for some of whom HERO may be of particular interest.

Termination: Distribute evaluation sheets.

SESSION II

GROUPS OF STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

1. Summarize major points from Session I with use of visual. (10 min.)

2. What groups of students in your school might benefit from training which would enable them to enter some HERO job after graduation? First, let us consider some groups of students who have special needs. It has been stated that those groups have special needs because special educational programs are needed if these young persons are to be educated effectively to become productive citizens.

Provocative words

(20 min.)

(One word presented at a time and ideas given are drawn together before going to the next word.)

Discussion lead in:

What characteristics come to mind when you hear this word?

- a. learning difficulties

Write characteristics

When you hear this word?

- b. culturally deprived

Given on board

Let's try another:

- c. drop-ins

3. Each participant draws a statement from a bag. Leader calls on person with No. ? (1 or 6) to read hers and comment on it. Group discusses each. Leader directs group thinking to fallacious aspects of statement. Use visual to summarize this.

4. Overview of papers

(30 min.)

- a. Kievit

- b. Salone

Conclusion: Groups of students with special needs should have the opportunity to enter educational programs designed to enable each to acquire the competencies necessary for entering the world of work. Such programs must include experiences which students find relevant and meaningful, in which each can feel some success.

Distribute copies of papers.

Discussion:

(25 min.)

Formulate questions which would be useful in identifying students who would be viewed as having special needs in the schools represented by participants.

Distribute questionnaire for each participant's use. Ask, are there some we came up with not included here? Let us add it (them). Next session we shall begin by sharing whatever information we collected on this.

Distribute and collect evaluation forms.

(5 min.)

Threads:

- a. Individuality of each situation, and each child;
- b. worth of child with special needs;
- c. use of positive reinforcements;
- d. time available for teacher to care.

SESSION III

SURVEYING CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS, RESOURCES OF THE SCHOOL, AND EMPLOYMENT NEEDS OF THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

1. Summary (use visual) (5 min.)
Some students have special needs in relation to educational programs.
Some can be referred to as students with learning difficulties,
culturally deprived, drop-ins and drop-outs. (10-15 min.)
2. Initiate sharing of information about proportions of students in the
various schools who could benefit from being prepared to obtain an
entry level job.

Concluding generalization sought:

A significant proportion of students need preparation for employment
after high school. Vocational schools cannot do the entire job nor
can business programs meet the needs of all.

3. Discussion preface:
Given the need, how do we in Home Economics proceed? What do we need
to know about the student, the school, and the community?

Let's form three buzz groups with one focusing on the school, another
on the community, and a third on students. In each case let's focus
on these questions:

- a. What information do we need, and
- b. How can we get it?

(30 min. total, i.e., about 2 min. per person.)

Each group can select a recorder.

Draw participants back to total group for reporting results of buzz groups.
Write major ideas on chalkboard. These should include (a) local community
labor needs; (b) resources: employment office, local businesses, manu-
facturers, unions, utility companies, school personnel, school policy
statements, present programs, administrators, and special service
personnel, physical facilities; (c) student interests, abilities.

4. Review articles by (20 min.)
Smith - Surveying the Community
McGill - Assistance from the Employment Office
Distribute these.
5. Advisory Committee (40 min.)
Function
Possible Composition
Use Plexiglass panels as conclusion.
Distribute advisory committee statement from State Department and Case Study.
6. Distribute and collect evaluation forms. (10 min.)
Thread - each situation different.

SESSION IV

WAYS OF INCORPORATING A WAGE-EARNING EMPHASIS

1. Summarize Session III. Use plexiglass visual and other.
 - a. A significant proportion of students need preparation for employment after high school.
 - b. Vocational schools can't do the entire job nor can business programs meet the needs of all students.
 - c. Teachers can get help from many community resources, one of which is an Advisory Committee.
2. Types of Programs
 - a. Integrated-general employability
child care
clothing
food
management
 - b. Diversified occupations
describe-
then begin slides with script
 - c. Occupational Mix
describe - refer to slides
on diversified occupations indicating how under other conditions (A D E Program in school) this might have developed as a "mix"
 - d. Occupational cluster courses
describe what is meant by cluster
continue use of slides and script

After slides hand out

 - (1) case studies
 - (2) mimeo describing four ways of incorporating a wage-earning emphasis.

Conclude: Next session we'll consider how programs such as these can be implemented.

SESSION V

HOW TO IMPLEMENT A WAGE-EARNING EMPHASIS

1. Summarize with visual.
Four ways of incorporating a wage-earning emphasis:
 - a. integrated
 - b. diversified
 - c. occupational mix
 - d. HERO
2. Identify needs in the school and community. (15-20 min.)
Discuss what participant thinks she might do to accomplish this.
3. Formal sources of assistance.
Human - monetary
Material in Session III can be referred to.
Distribute flow chart and discuss.
4. Recruitment and selection of students (5 min.)
Brainstorm
"How can you recruit students in your own situation?" (10 min.)
Follow up with case studies in Session IV in relation to recruitment.
5. How do we find out what to teach? (60 min.)
Job analysis
Describe what it is.
Show form.
Review Dr. Drawbaugh's paper.
Distribute paper and job analysis form.
6. Application: Role play job analysis
Leader interview a participant on her job as a Home Economics teacher.
Other participants record information on form.
Draw from job analysis learnings needed in a curriculum preparing Home Economics teachers.
Ask participants to do a job analysis in a HERO job. Ask participants to choose various Home Economics areas.
Distribute State Department mimeo on HERO areas.
Reaction card. (5 min.)

Conclude - indicating that next session will give attention to information found through job analyses and the implication for instruction and program development.

SESSION VI

HOW TO DEVELOP A HERO

1. Summarize Session V.
Use of visual:
Major ideas - determining need
Resources available
Job analysis
2. Ask participants to share results of her job analysis, selecting participants who did analyses in different HERO areas. (30-40 min.)
What information did she find that had implications for curriculum?
Stress - job clusters - emphasizing that an occupation course prepares students for several jobs within a particular area; e.g., kitchen aid, salad maker, etc. (See State Department handout from Session V.)
Distribute one course of study in each HERO area.
3. General employability (15 min.)
Discuss - Define general employability
Draw this out as a common factor for all HERO areas.
List characteristics on chalkboard.
Distribute Dr. Samples paper on general employability.
Distribute miniature job applications.
4. Methods (45 min.)
 - a. Similar to those of general and vocational home economics courses. Distribute Mrs. Savidge's list of methods, "You Don't Have to Lecture."
 - b. Use slides and photographs to show community technicians discussion laboratory experiences.
Describe the community technician using "groups" visual.
Distribute paper by Dr. Kievit on "Methods for HERO Courses."
 - c. Show "One Hour for Connie."
Distribute bulletin board ideas ditto.
Use of filmstrips - others are available; some appear in courses of study.
 - d. Cooperative Work Experience Stations.
Show photographs and slides # _____
 - e. Legal aspects (5 min.)
Discuss importance of investigating school policy.
Distribute Mr. Clark's statement.
 - f. P.R. ideas
Identify areas where P.R. is important.
Brainstorm - "What could be done to develop good public relations for this type of program?" (10 min.)
Distribute mimeo by Mrs. Cora Foltz.
Have brochures visible and some of USOE HERO course materials.
 - g. Reaction cards.

Conclude: The next and last session we will be concerned with student and program evaluation.

SESSION VII

EVALUATION SUMMARY AND APPLICATION

1. Summarize with visual (5 min.)
 - a. Job cluster analysis is the basis for developing a course of study for HERO.
 - b. Community technicians and cooperative work experiences can contribute to effective preparation for employment.
 - c. Public relations can help "make or break" the program.
2. Evaluation - sketch pad as Flip Chart (40 min.)
 - a. Student progress -
 - observation - teacher, student
 - rating scale
 - check list
 - student diary
 - personal conference -employer
 - student
 - parent
 - performance test
 - oral examination
 - prepost test (before-after)
 - self-evaluation
 - puzzles and bingo
 - b. Program evaluation
 - In terms of stated objectives (an effective program set up for meeting short-term needs may be discontinued and still have been very successful.)
 - Comparison of attendance records before program - after program
 - Employer conferences
 - Proportional enrollment
 - Decrease in number of "drop-outs" and "drop-ins"
 - Evidence of community interest and support
 - Evidence of student, administration, and school personnel interest
 - Student satisfaction
 - Follow-up studies of graduates
 - Distribute mimeos on evaluation
3. Quick summary - flannel cumulative visual (10 min.)
4. Commitment period
 - We have one major job left to do and that is: How does this apply to you?

Discussion to follow of each person's idea on how this workshop content applies to her situation.
Reaction card.

NAME _____

LEADER'S NAME _____

Session 1: WOMEN WORKERS - HOME ECONOMICS RELATED OCCUPATIONS

Place a check by the adjectives which best describe your view, and a ? if undecided.

1. The information about women workers was: ___interesting;
___informative; ___applicable to my present teaching;
___uninteresting; ___irrelevant; ___repetitive of what I
already know; ___helpful in clarifying the need for HERO.
2. The presentation of content concerning women workers was:
___very clear; ___moderately clear; ___vague.
3. The discussion of home economics related occupations (HERO):
___extended my understanding; ___was repetitive of what I
already know; ___was applicable to my present teaching;
___was uninteresting; ___was stimulating.
4. The amount of involvement of participants has been ___ just
right; ___not enough; ___too much, by too few.
5. In all, I rate this session as: ___excellent; ___good;
___fair; ___poor.

Remarks: Something outstandingly poor? Any ideas for improvement?
 Something outstandingly good?

NAME _____

LEADER'S NAME _____

Session 2: STUDENT GROUPS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Place a check by the phrases which best describe your view and a ? if undecided.

1. The discussion of the characteristics of groups of students with special needs: ___extended my understanding; ___is applicable to my present teaching; ___seemed irrelevant; ___repeated what I already know; ___helped clarify the need for HERO; ___was uninteresting.
2. The myths discussed: ___made me understand the group better; ___still seem accurate to me; ___was stimulating; ___ seemed a waste of time; ___was uninteresting.
3. Materials distributed last session: ___haven't had time to examine; ___I read; ___will be useful now; ___seem to be of dubious value now; ___will be useful later; ___seem of dubious value even later.
4. The amount of involvement of participants has been: ___just right; ___too much by too few; ___not enough.
5. In all, I rate this session as: ___excellent; ___good; ___fair; ___poor.

Remarks: Something outstandingly poor? Any ideas for improvement?
 Something outstandingly good?

NAME _____

LEADER'S NAME _____

Session 3: SURVEYING CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS, RESOURCES OF THE SCHOOL,
AND EMPLOYMENT NEEDS OF LOCAL COMMUNITY

Place a check by the phrases which best describe your view and a ? if undecided.

1. The sharing of information about students with special needs in each school: ____revealing; ____irrelevant; ____uninteresting; ____extended my awareness of student needs; ____reinforced the possible value of HERO; ____was stimulating.
2. The questions distributed to help me identify groups of students with special needs in the school where I teach: ____were too general; ____unanswerable; ____required too much time to answer; ____were adequate; ____helped considerably; ____were too specific; ____increased my sensitivity to student needs; ____indicated the possible value of HERO in the school.
3. The content concerning sources of occupational information and how to obtain it was: ____clearly presented; ____confusing; ____helpful now; ____will be helpful later; ____of dubious value now; ____of dubious value later.
4. The amount of involvement of participants in the buzz group was: ____not enough; ____a few dominated; ____just right.
5. The amount of time allotted for buzz groups was: ____insufficient; ____just right; ____too long.
6. The content presented on advisory committees: ____made me realise their value; ____helped me to understand their functions; ____gave me some ideas as to composition; ____seemed irrelevant; ____too vague; ____has dubious value; ____applicable now; ____applicable later; ____make me opposed to their use.
7. The amount of involvement of participants has been: ____just right; ____too much by too few; ____not enough.
8. In all, this session was: ____excellent; ____good; ____fair; ____poor.

Remarks: Something outstandingly poor? Any ideas for improvement?
 Something outstandingly good?

NAME _____

LEADER'S NAME _____

Session 4: WAYS OF INCORPORATING A WAGE-EARNING EMPHASIS

Place a check by the phrases which best describe your view or a ? if undecided.

1. The four ways of incorporating a wage-earning emphasis:
___stimulate my interest in HERO; ___are not clearly differentiated;
___seem out of accord with what home economics programs should be;
___help clarify possible modifications of programs; ___seem unrealistic.
2. The slides: ___were boring; ___informative; ___sensitized me to some new approaches; ___were an encouragement for me to consider such courses; ___reinforced my view that HERO is out of accord with what home economics courses should be.
3. Materials distributed last session: ___read some; ___read all; ___will read later; ___useful now; ___useful later; ___of doubtful use now; ___of doubtful use later.
4. The discussion has been: ___poor; ___fair; ___good; ___excellent.
5. The amount of involvement of participants has been: ___just right; ___too much by too few; ___not enough.
6. In all, I rate this session: ___excellent; ___good; ___fair; ___poor.

Remarks: Something outstandingly poor? Any ideas for improvement?
 Something outstandingly good?

NAME _____

LEADER'S NAME _____

Session 5: HOW TO INITIATE A WAGE-EARNING PROGRAM

Check the phrases which best describe your views; a ? if undecided.

1. The flow chart indicating relationships with other professionals involved in program development: ____increased my understanding; ____repeated that which I know; ____clarified these relationships; ____served to confuse.
2. The discussion on recruiting students: ____gave me new ideas; ____seemed irrelevant; ____increased my awareness of relevant considerations; ____seemed unrealistic.
3. Job analysis: ____was clearly presented; ____seems essential to HERO; ____is too time-consuming for a teacher; ____seems unnecessary for HERO; ____is out of accord with what home economics should be doing; ____still isn't clear; ____I think I could do an analysis.
4. The case studies distributed last session: ____will be read later; ____were informative; ____gave me a clearer understanding of the program; ____were too general.
5. The amount of involvement of participants has been: ____just right; ____too much by too few; ____not enough.
6. In all, this session was: ____excellent; ____good; ____fair; ____poor.

Remarks: Something outstandingly poor? Any ideas for improvement?
 Something outstandingly good?

NAME _____

LEADER'S NAME _____

Session 6: CURRICULUM AND METHODS FOR HERO

Place a check by the phrases which best describe your view; a ? if undecided.

1. The job analysis form was: ___easy to use; ___usable with modification; ___I was not able to do a job analysis; ___inadequate.
2. Sharing the results of each job analysis: ___was boring; ___was too repetitive; ___gave me new insights; ___reinforced the need for job analysis; ___made job analysis seem unnecessary.
3. Attention to methods for these courses: ___gave me some new ideas; ___was repetitive and a waste of time; ___was a valuable review; ___increased my understanding of the cooperative work experience; ___introduced me to the idea of community technicians; ___made me feel HERO courses are possible.
4. Discussion on public relations: ___was stimulating; ___produced some good ideas; ___was unproductive; ___makes me reluctant to become involved in HERO.
5. The amount of involvement of participants has been: ___just right; ___too much by too few; ___not enough.
6. In all, this session was: ___poor; ___fair; ___good; ___excellent.

Remarks: Something outstandingly poor? Any ideas for improvement?
 Something outstandingly good?

NAME _____

LEADER'S NAME _____

Session 7: EVALUATION SUMMARY AND APPLICATION

Place a check by the phrases which best describe your view; a ? if undecided.

1. Illustrate courses of study distributed last session: ____ have been unable to examine any; ____ looked at some; ____ these appear useful; ____ of doubtful utility; ____ make me feel I could teach such a course; ____ reinforce my view that HERO is out of accord with what home economists should be doing.
2. Attention to evaluation: ____ gave me some new ideas; ____ was repetitive and a waste of time; ____ was a valuable review; ____ was interestingly presented; ____ was boring.
3. Other materials distributed last session: ____ have been examined; ____ haven't had time to examine; ____ have utility for present teaching; ____ have utility for later; ____ of doubtful value.
4. Hearing each participant's ideas has been: ____ stimulating; ____ increased my interest in HERO; ____ uninteresting; ____ makes me think that HERO shouldn't be a part of home economics programs; ____ a good "finale."
5. The amount of involvement of participants has been: ____ just right; ____ too much by too few; ____ not enough.
6. In all, this session was: ____ poor; ____ fair; ____ good; ____ excellent.
7. Do you think this same workshop should be continued for other teachers in the state? ____ Yes; ____ No; ____ Undecided.

Remarks: Something outstandingly poor? Suggestion for improvement? Something outstandingly good? General - on total workshop?

SESSION 1

Area: Overall Rating

Question: Rating of Session (5)

Workshop	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	No Response
Bridgewater Raritan	5	8			
Clayton	2	8			
Cranford	3	9	1		
Mt. Holly	4	2			
Newark	1	5	2		1*
Red Bank	5	8			
Wayne	7	10			
Total	28	45	3		

*left early

Total N= 77

SESSION 2

Area: Overall Rating

Question: Overall Rating of Session (5)

Workshop	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Bridgewater Raritan	9	1		
Clayton	7	6		
Cranford	5	7	1	1
Mt. Holly	5	1		
Newark	2	6	1	
Red Bank	10	3		
Wayne	6	11		
Total	44	35	2	1

Total N = 82

SESSION 3

Area: Overall Session Rating (8)

Workshop	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Other
Bridgewater Raritan	5	6			1*
Clayton	9	4			
Cranford	4	8	1		
Mt. Holly	3	2			
Newark		8	1		
Red Bank	7	7			
Wayne	7	8			1**
Total	35	43	2		2

*no answer

**very good

Total N = 80

SESSION 4

Area: Overall Rating

Question: Rating of Session (6)

Workshop	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Bridgewater Raritan	8	1		
Clayton	6	5		
Mt. Holly	4	1		
Newark	1	8		
Red Bank	9	4		
Wayne	4	9		
Total	39	35		

Total N = 74

SESSION 5

Area: Overall Rating (6)

Workshop	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Other
Bridgewater Raritan	3	8			
Clayton	4	7	2		
Cranford	4	9			
Mt. Holly	4	2			
Newark	1	5	2		
Red Bank	5	5	1		
Wayne	6	5			
Total	24	41	5		

Total N = 70

SESSION 6

Area: Overall Rating (6)

Workshop	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Other
Bridgewater Raritan	6	4			
Clayton	4	7	1		
Cranford	4	7			
Mt. Holly	3	3			
Newark		5	1		
Red Bank	7	3	2		
Wayne	6	5			
Total	30	34	4		

Total N = 68

SESSION 7

Area: Overall Rating (6)

Workshop	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Other
Bridgewater Raritan	9	1			
Clayton	3	9	1		
Cranford	3	9	1		
Mt. Holly	2	2			
Newark	3	5			
Red Bank	7	5		1	
Wayne	8	7			
Total	35	38	2	1	

Total N = 76

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Are you ____single ____married ____widowed ____divorced?

In what year were you born? _____

(If married, widowed or divorced) Do you have children? ____yes ____no;
____number; ages _____

Have you completed a ____B.S. degree? ____year Institution
____Master's degree? ____year

Have you earned credits beyond the degree? ____yes ____no ____number

When did you last participate in a course, workshop or institute related to
your teaching? _____date

WORK EXPERIENCE:

How many years have you taught? _____

Has this been for a continuous period, i.e., without interruption? ____yes ____no

If no, what were the number and length of the interruptions? _____

How many years have you been teaching in this school? _____

Have you worked in business or community agencies after graduation from college?

____yes ____no. If yes, type of work _____

number of years _____

Which have you enjoyed the most? ____teaching ____business or community

For what single most important reason? _____

1. Have the high school home economics courses which you teach been modified or extended to incorporate a wage-earning emphases? ____yes ____no
(If yes, please describe.)

(If no), are any plans in process or complete for making changes next year?
____yes ____no. (If yes), briefly describe these. (If no) ask: Have
possible changes been considered?

2. Have high school home economics courses taught by other teachers been modified or extended to incorporate a wage-earning emphases? ____ yes
____no.
(If no, are any plans in process or complete for next year) ____ yes
____no.
(If yes, briefly describe changes or plans for change.)

(If no), ask whether changes have been considered.

Questions 3 through 14 to be answered only if changes have been made or planned.

3. How was the change initiated? (E.g., home economics teacher met with administrator recommending change; administrator suggested need for change; home economics teacher followed through on planning; state department personnel.)
4. How was the content of the course changes determined?
5. What teaching methods are used for these changes in courses?
6. When were these changes planned? (E.g., Fall, 1966, Spring, 1967)
7. Has anything been done to inform the community of the program change?
____yes ____no (please describe)
8. Have there been efforts to recruit students for revised courses?
____yes ____no (please describe)
9. Have library materials been ordered for use in the wage-earning aspects of the program? ____yes ____no (please describe types of materials, e.g., career monographs)
10. Do you think that present library resources include sufficient numbers and breadth of material on work, types of jobs related to home economics and related topics? ____yes ____don't know ____no

11. Have efforts been made to encourage students to utilize occupational materials? ☐yes ☐don't know ☐no (Please specify nature of efforts.)
12. What problems have you encountered in incorporating a wage-earning emphases in the Home Economics program?
13. What, if any, kinds of information have you obtained about your school and community it serves which has relevance for the home economics curriculum? ☐none ☐the following:
- | Types | Source |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| e.g. Types of businesses | Yellow pages of telephone directory |
14. Did this information influence the decision to modify the curriculum or to retain the present curriculum? ☐yes ☐no ☐don't know.

Do you attend state-wide meetings of the New Jersey Home Economics Association?
☐usually ☐sometimes ☐rarely ☐never

Have you attended state regional meetings for home economists?
☐usually ☐sometimes ☐rarely ☐never

Do you attend the national meetings of the American Home Economics Association?
☐usually ☐sometimes ☐rarely ☐never

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please fill in the answers to the following questions:

1. How long do you plan to continue work outside your home? ____ years.
Until what age? ____
2. What are the three most important reasons for your working?
(List in order of importance.)
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
3. If all economic needs of you and your family were met by present existing resources, would you ____quit work, ____work full-time, ____seek part-time employment, _____other?
4. In order to meet your household responsibilities, do you employ domestic help?

____not at all	____once every 2 weeks
____one day per week	____once every 3 weeks
____two days per week	____once a month
____five days per week	____other (specify)
5. Check any of the following services which you purchase.

____all laundry sent out	____child care
____only shirts sent out	eat out ____times per week
____grocery orders delivered	____times per month
____other (specify)	
6. Suggest three factors which help you achieve your goals in homemaking.
(List in order of importance.)
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
7. If married and living with your husband, does he

____strongly favor your teaching
____favors your teaching
____doesn't care whether you teach or not
____opposes your teaching
____strongly opposes your teaching
8. If you have children living at home, do your children

____strongly favor your teaching
____favor your teaching
____do not care whether you teach or not
____oppose your teaching
____strongly oppose your teaching

Indicate the degree to which the following persons help with the specified tasks:
 Place S in the block if they help SOMETIMES
 Place R in the block if they help ROUTINELY

Help	Clean House	Do Laundry	Iron Clothes	Cook	Wash Dishes	Shop for Groceries	Family Finances
Husband							
Children							
Mother							
Mother-in-law							
Rommate							

Circle the number which you think best describes your characteristics as a teacher. 1 is poor, 5 is excellent

- 1 2 3 4 5 Effectively communicate ideas and information to students
- 1 2 3 4 5 Well informed about current trends and developments in Home Economics education
- 1 2 3 4 5 Sensitive to students' needs and interests
- 1 2 3 4 5 Interested in teaching
- 1 2 3 4 5 Cooperate effectively with other teachers
- 1 2 3 4 5 Plan courses to meet changing needs of students, community and society
- 1 2 3 4 5 Establish rapport with students
- 1 2 3 4 5 Achieve excellent results in terms of student learning
- 1 2 3 4 5 Develop new course materials to keep program current with recent developments in the profession
- 1 2 3 4 5 Effectively evaluate student achievement

Circle the number which best expresses the degree of your agreement.

How well do you like the work you are doing?

1 2 3 4 5
 (strongly (strongly
 dislike it) like it)

Does your work give you a chance to do the things you feel you do best?

1 2 3 4 5
 (strongly (strongly
 disagree) agree)

Do you get any feeling of accomplishment from this work you are doing?

1 2 3 4 5
(definitely none) (very much so)

How do you feel about your work? Does it rate as an important job with you?

1 2 3 4 5
(not at all) (very much so)

How do you think other teachers and administrators feel about your work?
Do they rate it as an important job?

1 2 3 4 5
(not at all) (very much so)

Of what professional organizations are you a member?

Organization	(Check column)				(List)
	Attend Meetings	Office Held (Currently)	Committee Membership		
	never	rarely	sometimes	usually	

List professional journals to which you subscribe

Read Articles
never rarely sometimes usually

List professional journals accessible
to you (school, library)

Read Articles
never rarely sometimes usually

JOB PREFERENCE INVENTORY

All of us have different requirements for the job that we would find most attractive. The following are a number of alternatives that you might be faced with in considering job opportunities. Please check one alternative in each of the following pairs.

The kind of job that I would most prefer would be:

1. Check one:

- ___1. A job where I am almost always on my own.
- ___2. A job where there is nearly always someone available to help me on problems that I don't know how to handle.

2. Check one:

- ___1. A job where I have to make many decisions by myself.
- ___2. A job where I have to make a few decisions by myself.

3. Check one:

- ___1. A job where my instructions are quite detailed and specific.
- ___2. A job where my instructions are very general.

4. Check one:

- ___1. A job where I am almost always certain of my ability to perform well.
- ___2. A job where I am usually pressed to the limit of my abilities.

5. Check one:

- ___1. A job where I am the final authority on my work.
- ___2. A job where there is nearly always a person or a procedure that will catch my mistakes.

6. Check one:

- ___1. A job where I could be either highly successful or complete failure.
- ___2. A job where I could never be too successful but neither could I be a complete failure.

7. Check one:

- ___1. A job that is changing very little.
- ___2. A job that is constantly changing.

8. Check one:

- ___1. An exciting job but one which might be done away with in a short time.
- ___2. A less exciting job but one which would undoubtedly exist in the company for a long time.

The following is a study of what people think and feel about a number of important social and personal questions. The best answer to each statement below is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view. You may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others; whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.

Mark each statement in the left margin, according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+1: I agree a little

-1: I disagree a little

+2: I agree on the whole

-2: I disagree on the whole

+3: I agree very much

-3: I disagree very much

- ___ 1. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonely place.
- ___ 2. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.
- ___ 3. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness be beneath contempt.
- ___ 4. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.
- ___ 5. Most people just don't know what's good for them.
- ___ 6. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I just can't stop.
- ___ 7. The worst crime a person can commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.
- ___ 8. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what is going on is to rely upon leaders or experts who can be trusted.
- ___ 9. In the long run, the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.
- ___ 10. If given a chance, I would do something of great benefit to the world.

Check the answer which applies to you.

During the past six months, have you told any other home economists about some new information or practice in home economics.

____yes ____no

Compared with other home economists whom you know, a) are you more or b) are you less likely to be asked for advice about new practices in home economics?

____(a) ____ (b)

Thinking back to your last discussion about something new in home economics, a) were you asked for your opinion or b) did you ask someone else?

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When you discuss new ideas about home economics with other home economists, what part do you play?

____mainly listen or ____ try to convince them of your ideas?

Which of these happens more often

____ a) do you tell other home economists about some new practice or

____ b) do they tell you of some new practice?

Do you have the feeling that you are generally regarded by other home economists as a good source of advice about new practices in home economics?

____yes ____no

Place a Y beside an item if the item describes your work. Place an N if the item does not describe your work, and a question mark if you cannot decide.

Work

- ☐ Fascinating
- ☐ Routine
- ☐ Satisfying
- ☐ Boring
- ☐ Good
- ☐ Creative
- ☐ Respected
- ☐ Hot
- ☐ Pleasant
- ☐ Useful
- ☐ Tiresome
- ☐ Healthful
- ☐ Challenging
- ☐ On your feet
- ☐ Frustrating
- ☐ Simple
- ☐ Endless
- ☐ Gives sense of accomplishment

Place a Y, N or ? beside each item, as you did by items on the first list.

Person or persons who supervise your work

- ___ asks my advice
- ___ hard to please
- ___ impolite
- ___ praises good work
- ___ tactful
- ___ influential
- ___ up-to-date
- ___ doesn't supervise enough
- ___ quick tempered
- ___ tells me where I stand
- ___ annoying
- ___ stubborn
- ___ knows job well
- ___ bad
- ___ intelligent
- ___ leaves me on my own
- ___ around when needed
- ___ lazy

Place a Y, N or ? beside each item, as before.

Adults (on job)

- ___ stimulating
- ___ boring
- ___ slow
- ___ ambitious
- ___ stupid
- ___ responsible
- ___ fast
- ___ intelligent
- ___ easy to make enemies
- ___ talk too much
- ___ smart
- ___ lazy
- ___ unpleasant
- ___ no privacy
- ___ active
- ___ narrow interests
- ___ loyal
- ___ hard to meet

Place a Y, N or ? by each item, as on prior lists.

Pay

- ☐ Income adequate for normal expenses
- ☐ Satisfactory salary increases
- ☐ Barely live on income
- ☐ Bad
- ☐ Income provides luxuries
- ☐ Less than I deserve
- ☐ Highly paid
- ☐ Underpaid

What is (was - if deceased or retired) your father's occupation? _____
(Please be specific, e.g., self-employed butcher, truck driver, farm owner
and manager, lawyer.)

The last year of education completed by my father was:

- | | |
|--|---|
| ☐ 8th grade | ☐ 12th grade |
| ☐ some college | ☐ graduated college |
| ☐ post graduate | ☐ post high school technical |

(If married)

My husband's occupation is: _____
(Please be specific - insurance agent, car dealer, etc.)

He completed (last year)

- | | |
|--|---|
| ☐ 8th grade | ☐ 12th grade |
| ☐ some college | ☐ college graduate |
| ☐ post graduate | ☐ post high school technical |

QUESTIONNAIRE
(MAILED TO NON-PARTICIPANTS)

Please answer the following questions:

Are you ____single ____married ____widowed ____divorced?

In what year were you born? _____

(If married, widowed or divorced) Do you have children ____yes ____no;
____number; ages _____

Have you completed a ____B.S. degree? ____year Institution _____
____Master's degree? ____year _____

Have you earned credits beyond the degree? ____yes ____no ____number.

When did you last participate in a course, workshop or institute related
to your teaching? _____ date

WORK EXPERIENCE:

How many years have you taught? _____

Has this been for a continuous period, i.e., without interruption? ____yes
____no

If no, what were the number and length of the interruptions? _____

How many years have you been teaching in this school? _____

Have you worked in business or community agencies after graduation from
college? ____yes ____no. If yes, type of work _____

number of years _____

Which have you enjoyed the most? ____teaching ____business or community

For what single most important reason? _____

Do you attend state-wide meetings of the New Jersey Home Economics Association?
____usually ____sometimes ____rarely ____never

Have you attended state regional meetings for home economists?
____usually ____sometimes ____rarely ____never

Do you attend the national meetings of the American Home Economics Association?
____usually ____sometimes ____rarely ____never

Please fill in the answers to the following questions:

1. How long do you plan to continue work outside your home? ____ years.
Until what age? ____
2. What are the three most important reasons for your working?
(List in order of importance.)
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
3. If all economic needs of you and your family were met by previous existing resources, would you ____ quit work, ____ work full-time, ____ seek part-time employment, ____ other?
4. In order to meet your household responsibilities, do you employ domestic help?

____ not at all	____ once every 2 weeks
____ one day per week	____ once every 3 weeks
____ two days per week	____ once a month
____ five days per week	____ other (specify)
5. Check any of the following services which you purchase.

____ all laundry sent out	____ child care
____ only shirts sent out	eat out ____ times per week
____ grocery orders delivered	____ times per month
____ other (specify)	
6. Suggest three factors which help you achieve your goals in homemaking.
(List in order of importance.)
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
7. If married and living with your husband, does he
 - ____ strongly favor your teaching
 - ____ favors your teaching
 - ____ doesn't care whether you teach or not
 - ____ opposes your teaching
 - ____ strongly opposes your teaching
8. If you have children living at home, do your children
 - ____ strongly favor your teaching
 - ____ favor your teaching
 - ____ do not care whether you teach or not
 - ____ oppose your teaching
 - ____ strongly oppose your teaching

Indicate the degree to which the following persons help with the specified tasks:

Place S in the block if they help SOMETIMES

Place R in the block if they help ROUTINELY

Help	Clean House	Do Laundry	Iron Clothes	Cook	Wash Dishes	Shop for Groceries	Family Finances
<u>Husband</u>							
<u>Children</u>							
<u>Mother</u>							
<u>Mother-in-law</u>							
<u>Rommate</u>							

Circle the number which you think best describes your characteristics as a teacher. 1 is poor, 5 is excellent

- 1 2 3 4 5 Effectively communicate ideas and information to students
- 1 2 3 4 5 Well informed about current trends and developments in Home Economics education
- 1 2 3 4 5 Sensitive to students' needs and interests
- 1 2 3 4 5 Interested in teaching
- 1 2 3 4 5 Cooperate effectively with other teachers
- 1 2 3 4 5 Plan courses to meet changing needs of students, community and society
- 1 2 3 4 5 Establish rapport with students
- 1 2 3 4 5 Achieve excellent results in terms of student learning
- 1 2 3 4 5 Develop new course materials to keep program current with recent developments in the profession
- 1 2 3 4 5 Effectively evaluate student achievement

Circle the number which best expresses the degree of your agreement.

How well do you like the work you are doing?

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly dislike it)				(strongly like it)

Does your work give you a chance to do the things you feel you do best?

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)				(strongly agree)

Do you get any feeling of accomplishment from this work you are doing?

1 2 3 4 5
(definitely none) (very much so)

How do you feel about your work? Does it rate as an important job with you?

1 2 3 4 5
(not at all) (very much so)

How do you think other teachers and administrators feel about your work?
Do they rate it as an important job?

1 2 3 4 5
(not at all) (very much so)

Of what professional organizations are you a member:

Organization	(Check column) Attend Meetings	(List) Office Held (Currently) Committee Membership
	never rarely sometimes usually	

List professional journals to which
you subscribe

Read Articles
never rarely sometimes usually

List professional journals accessible
to you (school, library)

Read Articles
never rarely sometimes usually

JOB PREFERENCE INVENTORY

All of us have different requirements for the job that we would find most attractive. The following are a number of alternatives that you might be faced with in considering job opportunities. Please check one alternative in each of the following pairs.

The kind of job that I would most prefer would be:

1. Check one:

- ___ 1. A job where I am almost always on my own.
- ___ 2. A job where there is nearly always someone available to help me on problems that I don't know how to handle.

2. Check one:

- ___ 1. A job where I have to make many decisions by myself.
- ___ 2. A job where I have to make a few decisions by myself.

3. Check one:

- ___ 1. A job where my instructions are quite detailed and specific.
- ___ 2. A job where my instructions are very general.

4. Check one:

- ___ 1. A job where I am almost always certain of my ability to perform well.
- ___ 2. A job where I am usually pressed to the limit of my abilities.

5. Check one:

- ___ 1. A job where I am the final authority on my work.
- ___ 2. A job where there is nearly always a person or a procedure that will catch my mistakes.

6. Check one:

- ___ 1. A job where I could be either highly successful or complete failure.
- ___ 2. A job where I could never be too successful but neither could I be a complete failure.

7. Check one:

- ___ 1. A job that is changing very little.
- ___ 2. A job that is constantly changing.

8. Check one:

- ___ 1. An exciting job but one which might be done away with in a short time.
- ___ 2. A less exciting job but one which would undoubtedly exist in the company for a long time.

The following is a study of what people think and feel about a number of important social and personal questions. The best answer to each statement below is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view. You may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others; whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.

Mark each statement in the left margin, according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+1: I agree a little

-1: I disagree a little

+2: I agree on the whole

-2: I disagree on the whole

+3: I agree very much

-3: I disagree very much

- ___1. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonely place.
- ___2. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.
- ___3. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.
- ___4. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.
- ___5. Most people just don't know what's good for them.
- ___6. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I just can't stop.
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What is (was - if deceased or retired) your father's occupation? _____
(Please be specific, e.g., self-employed butcher, truck driver, farm owner
and manager, lawyer.)

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|--|---|
| ☐ 8th grade | ☐ 12th grade |
| ☐ some college | ☐ graduated college |
| ☐ post graduate | ☐ post high school technical |

(If married)

My husband's occupation is: _____
(Please be specific - insurance agent, car dealer, etc.)

I was unable to attend the In-service Workshop for selected high school home
economics teachers from January through April 4th, because: